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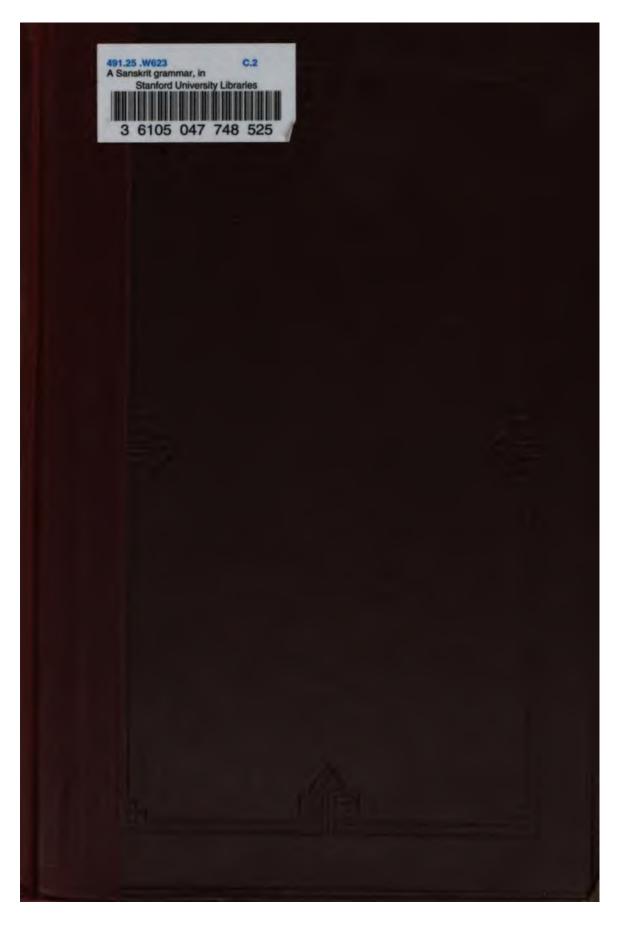
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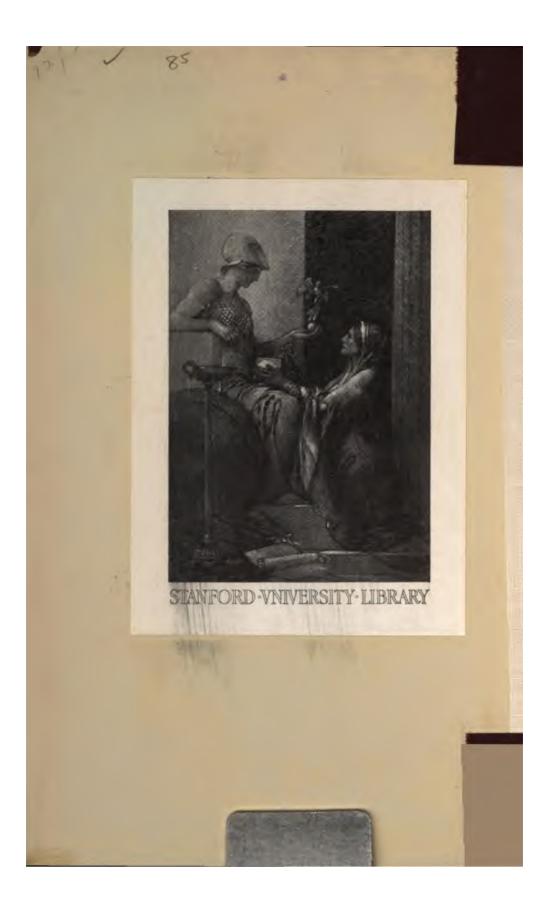
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Harold N. Farris

Cambrida, Mar.

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SANSKRIT GRAMMAR,

INCLUDING BOTH THE CLASSICAL LANGUAGE, AND THE OLDER DIALECTS, OF VEDA AND BRAHMANA.

BY

WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY,

PROFESSOR OF SANSKRIT AND COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY IN YALE COLLEGE, NEW-HAVEN; CORRESPONDENT OF THE ACADEMIES OF BERLIN AND ST. PETERSBURG, AND OF THE INSTITUTE OF FRANCE, ETC. ETC.



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PREFACE.

It was in June, 1875, as I chanced to be for a day or two in Leipzig, that I was unexpectedly invited to prepare the Sanskrit grammar for the Indo-European series projected by Messrs. Breitkopf and Härtel. After some consideration. and consultation with friends, I accepted the task, and have since devoted to it what time could be spared from regular duties, after the satisfaction of engagements earlier formed. If the delay seems a long one, it was nevertheless unavoidable ; and I would gladly, in the interest of the work itself, have made it still longer. In every such case, it is necessary to make a compromise between measurably satisfying a present pressing need, and doing the subject fuller justice at the cost of more time; and it seemed as if the call for a Sanskrit grammar on a somewhat different plan from those already in use - excellent as some of these in many respects are - was urgent enough to recommend a speedy completion of the work begun.

The objects had especially in view in the preparation of this grammar have been the following:

To make a presentation of the facts of the language primarily as they show themselves in use in the literature, and only secondarily as they are laid down by the native grammarians. The earliest European grammars were by the necessity of the case chiefly founded on their native predecessors; and a traditional method was thus established which has been perhaps somewhat too closely adhered to, at the expense of clearness and of proportion, as well as of scientific truth. Accordingly, my attention has not been directed toward a profounder study of the grammatical science of the Hindu schools: their teachings I have been contented to take as already reported to Western learners in the existing Western grammars.

To include also in the presentation the forms and constructions of the older language. as exhibited in the Veda and the Brāhmaņa. Grassmann's excellent Index-Vocabulary to the Rig-Veda, and my own manuscript one to the Atharva-Veda which I hope soon to be able to make public. gave me in full detail the great mass of Vedic material: and this, with some assistance from pupils and friends. I have sought to complete, as far as the circumstances permitted, from the other Vedic texts and from the various works of the Brähmaņa period, both printed and manuscript.

To treat the language throughout as an accented one. omitting nothing of what is known respecting the nature of the Sanskrit accent, its changes in combination and inflection, and the tone of individual words — being, in all this, necessarily dependent especially upon the material presented by the older accentuated texts.

To cast all statements, classifications, and so on, into a form consistent with the teachings of linguistic science. In doing this, it has been necessary to discard a few of the long-used and familiar divisions and terms of Sanskrit grammar - for example, the classification and nomenclature of "special tenses" and "general tenses" which is so indefensible that one can only wonder at its having maintained itself so long, the order and terminology of the conjugation-classes. the separation in treatment of the facts of internal and external euphonic combination, and the like. But care has been taken to facilitate the transition from the old to the new; and the changes, it is believed, will commend themselves to unqualified acceptance. It has been sought also to help an appreciation of the character of the language by putting its facts as far as possible into a statistical form. In this respect the native grammar is especially deficient and misleading.

Regard has been constantly had to the practical needs of the learner of the language, and it has been attempted, by due arrangement and by the use of different sizes of

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type, to make the work as usable by one whose object it is to acquire a knowledge of the classical Sanskrit alone as those are in which the earlier forms are not included. The custom of transliterating all Sanskrit words into European characters, which has become usual in European Sanskrit grammars, is, as a matter of course, retained throughout; and, because of the difficulty of setting even a small Sanskrit type with anything but a large European, it is practiced alone in the smaller sizes.

While the treatment of the facts of the language has thus been made a historical one, within the limits of the language itself, I have not ventured to make it comparative, by bringing in the analogous forms and processes of other related languages. To do this, in addition to all that was attempted beside, would have extended the work, both in content and in time of preparation, far beyond the limits assigned to it. And, having decided to leave out this element. I have done so consistently throughout. Explanations of the origin of forms have also been avoided. for the same reason and for others, which hardly call for statement.

A grammar is necessarily in great part founded on its predecessors, and it would be in vain to attempt an acknowledgment in detail of all the aid received from other scholars. I have had at hand always especially the very scholarly and reliable brief summary of Kielhorn, the full and excellent work of Monier Williams, the smaller grammar of Bopp (a wonder of learning and method for the time when it was prepared, and the volumes of Benfey and Müller. As regards the material of the language, no other aid, of course, has been at all comparable with the great Petersburg lexicon of Böhtlingk and Roth, the existence of which gives by itself a new character to all investigations of the What I have not found there or in the Sanskrit language. special collections made by myself or by others for me, I have called below "not quotable" --- a provisional designation, necessarily liable to correction in detail by the results of further researches. For what concerns the verb, its forms and their classification and uses. I have had, as every one

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must have, by far the most aid from Delbrück, in his Altindisches Verbum and his various syntactical contributions. Former pupils of my own, Prof. Avery and Dr. Edgren, have also helped me, in connection with this subject and with others, in a way and measure that calls for public acknowledgment. In respect to the important matter of the declension in the earliest language. I have made great use of the elaborate paper in the Journ. Am. Or. Soc. printing contemporaneously with this work, and used by n.e. almost, but not quite, to the end of the subject by my former pupil Prof. Lanman : my treatment of it is founded on his. My manifold obligations to my own teacher. Prof. Weber of Berlin, also require to be mentioned among other things. I owe to him the use of his copies of certain unpublished texts of the Brahmana period, not otherwise accessible to me and he was kind enough to look through with me my work in its inchoate condition, favoring me with valuable suggestions. For this last favor I have likewise po thank Prof. Delbrück - who, moreover, has taken the monble to glance over for a like purpose the creater part of the proof-sheets of the grammar, as they came from the press To Dr. L. Schröder is due whatever use I have been able to make unfortunately a very imperfect one of the important Matriavani-Sanhita.

Of the deficiencies of my work I am. I think, not less fully aware than any critic of it, even the severest, is likely to be. Should it be found to answer its intended purpose well enough to come to another edition, my endeavor will be to improve and complete it: and I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which may aid me in making it a more efficient help to the study of the Sanskrit language and literature.

GOTHA. July 1879.

W. D. W.

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BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE INDIAN LITERATURE.

It seems desirable to give here such a sketch of the history of Indian literature as shall show the relation to one another of the different periods and forms of the language treated in the following grammar, and the position of the works there quoted.

The name "Sanskrit" (samskrta, 1087 d. 'adorned, elaborated, perfected', which is popularly applied to the whole ancient and sacred language of India. belongs more properly only to that dialect which, regulated and established by the labors of the native grammarians, has led for the last two thousand years or more an artificial life. like that of the Latin during most of the same period in Europe, as the written and spoken means of communication of the learned and priestly caste; and which even at the present day fills that office. It is thus distinguished, on the one hand, from the later and derived dialects - as the Prakrit, forms of language which have datable monuments from as early as the third century before Christ, and which are represented by inscriptions and coins, by the speech of the uneducated characters in the Sanskrit dramas (see below), and by a limited literature; the Pali. a Prakritic dialect which became the sacred language of Buddhism in Farther India, and is

still in service there as such; and yet later and more altered tongues forming the transition to the languages of Modern India. And, on the other hand, it is distinguished, but very much less sharply and widely, from the older dialects or forms of speech presented in the canonical literature, the Veda and Brāhmana.

This fact, of the fixation by learned treatment of an authorized mode of expression, which should thenceforth be used according to rule in the intercourse of the educated, is the cardinal one in Indian linguistic history; and as the native grammatical literature has determined the form of the language, so it has also to a large extent determined the grammatical treatment of the language by European scholars.

Much in the history of the learned movement is still obscure, and opinions are at variance even as to points of prime consequence. Only the concluding works in the development of the grammatical science have been preserved to us; and though they are evidently the perfected fruits of a long series of learned labors, the records of the latter are lost beyond recovery. The time and the place of the creation of Sanskrit are unknown; and as to its occasion, we have only our inferences and conjectures to rely upon. It seems, however, altogether likely that the grammatical sense of the ancient Hindus was awakened in great measure by their study of the traditional sacred texts, and by their comparison of its different language with that of contemporary use. It is certain that the grammatical study of those texts $(c\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s, lit'ly 'branches')$, phonetic and other, was zealously and effectively followed in the Brahmanic schools; this is attested by our possession of a number of phonetico-grammatical treatises, prātiçākhyas (prati çākhām, 'belonging to each several text', one having for subject each principal Vedic text, and noting all its peculiarities of form; these, both by the depth and exactness of their own researches and by the number of authorities which they quote, speak plainly of a lively scientific activity continued during a long time. What part, on the other hand, the notice of differ-

ences between the correct speech of the learned and the altered dialects of the vulgar may have borne in the same movement is not easy to determine; but it is not customary that a language has its proper usages fixed by rule until the danger is distinctly felt of its undergoing corruption.

The labors of the general school of Sanskrit grammar reached a climax in the grammarian Pānini, whose text-book. containing the facts of the language cast into the highly artful and difficult form of about four thousand algebraicformula-like rules (in the statement and arrangement of which brevity alone is had in view, at the cost of distinctness and unambiguousness, became for all after time the authoritative, almost sacred, norm of correct speech. Respecting his period, nothing really definite and trustworthy is known; but he is with much probability held to have lived some time (two to four centuries) before the Christian era. He has had commentators in abundance, and has undergone at their hands some measure of amendment and completion; but he has not been overthrown or superseded. The chief and most authoritative commentary on his work is that called the Mahābhāshya. 'great comment', in which Kātyāvana's strictures on his rules are examined and discussed by Patanjali.

A language, even if not a vernacular one, which is in tolerably wide and constant use for writing and speaking, is. of course, kept in life principally by direct tradition. by communication from teacher to scholar and the study and imitation of existing texts, and not by the learning of grammatical rules; yet the existence of grammatical authority, and especially of a single one, deemed infallible and of prescriptive value, could not fail to exert a very strong regulative influence, leading to the avoidance more and more of what was, even if lingering in use, inconsistent with his teachings, and also, in the constant reproduction of texts, to the gradual effacement of whatever they might contain that was unapproved. Thus the whole more modern literature of India has been Paninized, so to speak, pressed into the mould prepared by him and his school. What are the

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limits of the artificiality of this process is not yet known. The attention of special students of the Hindu grammar and the subject is so intricate and difficult that the number is exceedingly small of those who have mastered it sufficiently to have a competent opinion on such general matters) has been hitherto mainly directed toward determining what the Sanskrit according to Pānini really is, toward explaining the language from the grammar. And, naturally enough, in India, or wherever else the leading object is to learn to speak and write the language correctly - that is, as authorized by the grammarians — that is the proper course to pursue. This, however, is not the way really to understand the language. The time must soon come, or it has come already, when the endeavor shall be instead to explain the grammar from the language; to test in all details, so far as shall be found possible, the reason of Pānini's rules (which contain not a little that seems problematical, or even sometimes perverse : to determine what and how much genuine usage he had everywhere as foundation, and what traces may be left in the literature of usages possessing an inherently authorized character, though unratified by him.

By the term "classical" or "later" language, then, as constantly used below in the grammar, is meant the language of those literary monuments which are written in conformity with the rules of the native grammar: virtually. the whole proper Sanskrit literature. For although parts of this are doubtless earlier than Pānini, it is impossible to tell just what parts, or how far they have escaped in their style the levelling influence of the grammar. The whole, too. may be called so far an artificial literature as it is written in a phonetic form (see grammar, 103) which never can have been a truly vernacular and living one. Nearly all of it is metrical: not poetic works only. but narratives, histories (so far as anything deserving that name can be said to exist. and scientific treatises of every variety, are done into verse; a prose and a prose literature except in the commentaries) hardly has an existence. Of linguistic history there is next to nothing in it all; but only a history of style. and this

for the most part showing a gradual depravation, an increase of artificiality and an intensification of certain more undesirable features of the language — such as the use of passive constructions and of participles instead of verbs, and the substitution of compounds for sentences.

This being the condition of the later literature, it is of so much the higher consequence that there is an earlier literature, to which the suspicion of artificiality does not attach, or attaches at least only in a minimal degree, which has a truly vernacular character, and abounds in prose as well as verse.

The results of the very earliest literary productiveness of the Indian people are the hymns with which, when they had only crossed the threshold of the country, and when their geographical horizon was still limited to the riverbasin of the Indus with its tributaries, they praised their gods, the deified powers of nature, and accompanied the rites of their comparatively simple worship. At what period these were made and sung cannot be determined with any approach to accuracy: it may have been as early as 2000 B.C. They were long handed down by oral tradition, preserved by the care, and increased by the additions and imitations, of succeeding generations; the mass was ever growing, and, with the change of habits and beliefs and religious practices, was becoming variously applied - sung in chosen extracts, mixed with other material into liturgies, adapted with more or less of distortion to help the needs of a ceremonial which was coming to be of immense elaboration and intricacy. And, at some time in the course of this history, there was made for preservation a great collection of the hymn-material, mainly its oldest and most genuine part, to the extent of over a thousand hymns and ten thousand verses, arranged according to traditional authorship and to subject and length of hymn: this collection is the Rig-Veda, 'Veda of verses (rc) or hymns'. Other collections were made also out of the same general mass of traditional material: doubtless later, although the interrelations of this period are as yet too unclear to allow of

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our speaking with entire confidence as to anything concerning them. Thus, the Sāma-Veda, 'Veda of chants (sāman'. containing only about a sixth as much, its verses nearly all found in the Rig-Veda also, but appearing here with numerous differences of reading: these were passages put together for chanting at the soma-sacrifices. Again, collections called by the comprehensive name of Yajur-Veda, 'Veda of sacrificial formulas (yajus)': these contained not verses alone, but also numerous prose utterances, mingled with the former. in the order in which they were practically employed in the ceremonies: they were strictly liturgical collections. Of these, there are in existence several texts, which have their mutual differences: the Vājasaneyi-Samhitā (in two slightly discordant versions, Madhyandina and Kanva, sometimes also called the White Yajur-Veda; and the various and considerably differing texts of the Black Yajur-Veda, namely the Taittiriya-Samhita, the Maitrayani-Samhita, and the Kathaka (the two last not yet published). Finally, another historical collection, like the Rig-Veda, but made up mainly of later and less accepted material, and called (among other less current names) the Atharva-Veda, 'Veda of the Atharvans (a legendary priestly family)'; it is somewhat more than half as bulky as the Rig-Veda, and contains a certain amount of material corresponding to that of the latter, and also a number of brief prose passages. To this last collection is very generally refused in the orthodox literature the name of Veda; but for us it is the most interesting of all, after the Rig-Veda, because it contains the largest amount of hymn-material (or mantra, as it is called, in distinction from the prose brahmana), and in a language which, though distinctly less antique than that of the other, is nevertheless truly Vedic. Two versions of it are extant, one of them only in a single known manuscript.

A not insignificant body of like material, and of various period (although doubtless in the main belonging to the latest time of Vedic productiveness, and in part perhaps the imitative work of a yet more modern time), is scattered through the texts to be later described, the $Br\bar{a}hmay$ as and

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the Sutras. To assemble and sift and compare it is now one of the pressing needs of Vedic study.

The fundamental divisions of the Vedic literature here mentioned all have had their various schools of sectaries, each of these with a text of its own, showing some differences from those of the other schools: but those mentioned above are all that are now known to be in existence; and the chance of the discovery of others grows every year smaller.

The labor of the schools in the conservation of their sacred texts was extraordinary, and has been crowned with such success that the text of each school, whatever may be its differences from those of other schools, is virtually without various readings, preserved with all its peculiarities of dialect, and its smallest and most exceptional traits of phonetic form, pure and unobscured. It is not the place here to describe the means by which, in addition to the religious care of the sectaries, this accuracy was secured: forms of text, lists of peculiarities and treatises upon them, and so on. When this kind of care began in the case of each text, and what of original character may have been effaced before it, or lost in spite of it, cannot be told. But it is certain that the Vedic records furnish, on the whole, a wonderfully accurate and trustworthy picture of a form of ancient Indian language (as well as ancient Indian beliefs and institutions) which was a natural and undistorted one. and which goes back a good way behind the classical Sanskrit. Its differences from the latter the following treatise endeavors to show in detail.

Along with the verses and sacrificial formulas and phrases in the texts of the Black Yajur-Veda are given long prose sections, in which the ceremonies are described, their meaning and the reason of the details and the accompanying utterances are discussed and explained, illustrative legends are reported or fabricated, and various speculations, etymological and other, are indulged in. Such matter comes to be called *brāhmaņa* (apparently 'relating to the *brahman* hip'). In the White Yajur-Veda, it is separated into

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a work by itself, beside the samhitā or text of verses and formulas, and is called the Catapatha-Brāhmana, 'Brāhmana of a hundred ways'. Other similar collections are found, belonging to various other schools of Vedic study, and they bear the common name of Brahmana, with the name of the school, or some other distinctive title, prefixed. Thus, the Aitareva and Kaushitaki-Brahmanas, belonging to the schools of the Rig-Veda. the Pañcarinca and Shadvinca-Brahmanas and other minor works, to the Sama-Veda; the Gopatha-Brahmana, to the Atharva-Veda; and a Jaimini-Brāhmaņa, to the Sāma-Veda. has just (Burnell' been discovered in India; the Taittiriya-Brahmana is a collection of mingled mantra and brahmana, like the samhita of the same name, but supplementary and later. These works are likewise regarded as canonical by the schools, and are learned by their sectaries with the same extreme care which is devoted to the samhitas, and their condition of textual preservation is of a kindred excellence. To a certain extent, there is among them the possession of common material: a fact the bearings of which are not yet fully understood.

Notwithstanding the inanity of no small part of their contents. the Brāhmanas are of a high order of interest in their bearings on the history of Indian institutions; and philologically they are not less important. since they represent a form of language in most respects intermediate between the classical and that of the Vedas. and offer specimens on a large scale of a prose style. and of one which is in the main a natural and freely developed one — the oldest and most primitive Indo-European prose.

Beside the Brähmanas are sometimes found later appendices, of a similar character, called *Aranyakas* ('forestsections': as the *Aitarrya-Aranyaka*, *Täittäriya-Aranyaka*, *Brhad-Aranyaka*, and so on. And from some of these, or even from the Brähmanas, are extracted the earliest *Upanishads* ('sittings, lectures on sacred subjects') — which, however, are continued and added to down to a comparatively modern time. The P- only are one of the lines by which the Brāhmaņa literature passes over into the later theological literature.

Another line of transition is shown in the Sutras ('lines. rules'). The works thus named are analogous with the Brahmanas in that they belong to the schools of Vedic study and are named from them, and that they deal with the religious ceremonies: treating them, however, in the way of prescription, not of dogmatic explanation. They, too, contain some mantra or hymn-material, not found to occur elsewhere. In part (grauta or kalpa-sūtras), they take up the great sacrificial ceremonies, with which the Brahmanas have to do; in part (grhya-sūtras), they teach the minor duties of a pious householder; in some cases (sāmayācārika-sūtras) they lay down the general obligations of one whose life is in accordance with prescribed duty. And out of the last two, or especially the last, come by natural development the law-books (dharma-castras), which make a conspicuous figure in the later literature: the oldest and most noted of them being that called by the name of Manu (an outgrowth, it is believed, of the Manava Vedic school); to which are added that of Yājnavalkya. and many others.

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Respecting the chronology of this development, or the date of any class of writings, still more of any individual work, the less that is said the better. All dates given in Indian literary history are pins set up to be bowled down again. Every important work has undergone so many more or less transforming changes before reaching the form in which it comes to us, that the question of original construction is complicated with that of final redaction. It is so with the law-book of Manu, just mentioned, which has well-founded claims to being regarded as one of the very oldest works of the proper Sanskrit literature, if not the oldest (it is variously assigned, to periods from six centuries before Christ to soon after Christ). It is so, again, in a still more striking degree, with the great legendary epic of the Mahābhārata. The ground-work of this is doubtless of very early date; but it has served as a text into which

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materials of various character and period have been inwoven. until it has become a heterogeneous mass, a kind of cyclopedia for the warrior-caste, hard to separate into its constituent parts. The story of Nala, and the philosophical poem Bhagavad-Gitā, are two of the most noted of its episodes. The Rāmāyana, the other most famous epic. is a work of another kind: though also worked over and more or less altered in its transmission to our time, it is the production, in the main, of a single author (Valmiki); and it is generally believed to be in part allegorical, representing the introduction of Arvan culture and dominion into Southern India. By its side stand a number of minor epics. of various authorship and period. as the Raghuvanca (ascribed to the dramatist Kalidasa), the Maghakavya, the Bhattikāvya (the last, written chiefly with the grammatical intent of illustrating by use as many as possible of the numerous formations which, through taught by the grammarians, find no place in the literature).

The *Purāņas*, a large class of works mostly of immense extent, are best mentioned in connection with the epics. They are pseudo-historical and prophetic in character, of modern date, and of very small value. Real history finds no place in Sanskrit literature, nor is there any conscious historical element in any of the works composing it.

Lyric poetry is represented by many works, some of which, as the *Meghadūta* and *Gītagovinda*, are of no mean order of merit.

The drama is a still more noteworthy and important branch. The first indications of dramatical inclination and capacity on the part of the Hindus are seen in certain hymns of the Veda, where a mythological or legendary situation is conceived dramatically, and set forth in the form of a dialogue — well-known examples are the dialogue of Saramā and the Panis, that of Yama and his sister Yamī, that of Vasishtha and the rivers. that of Agni and the other gods — but there are no extant intermediaries between these and the standard drama. The beginnings of the latter date from a period when in actual life the higher and educated

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characters used Sanskrit, and the lower and uneducated used the popular dialects derived from it, the Prakrits; and their dialogue reflects this condition of things. Then, however, learning (not to call it pedantry) intervened, and stereotyped the new element; a Prakrit grammar grew up beside the Sanskrit grammar, according to the rules of which Prakrit could be made indefinitely on a substrate of Sanskrit; and none of the existing dramas need to date from the time of vernacular use of Prakrit, while most or all of them are undoubtedly much later. Among the dramatic authors, Kālidāsa is incomparably the chief, and his Cakuntalā as distinctly his masterpiece. His date has been a matter of much inquiry and controversy; it is doubtless some centuries later than our era. The only other work deserving to be mentioned along with Kalidasa's is the Mrchakati of Çūdraka, also of questionable period, but believed to be the oldest of the extant dramas.

A partly dramatic character belongs also to the fable, in which animals are represented as acting and speaking. The most noted works in this department are the *Pañcatantra*, which through Persian and Semitic versions has made its way all over the world, and contributes a considerable quota to the fable-literature of every European language, and, partly founded on it, the comparatively recent and popular *Hitopadeça* ('salutary instruction').

Two of the leading departments of Sanskrit scientific literature, the legal and the grammatical, have been already sufficiently noticed; of those remaining, the most important by far is the philosophical. The beginnings of philosophical speculation are seen already in some of the later hymns of the Veda, more abundantly in the Brāhmaņas and Āraņyakas, and then especially in the Upanishads. The evolution and historic relation of the systems of philosophy, and the age of their text-books, are matters on which much obscurity still rests. There are six systems of primary rank, and reckoned as orthodox, although really standing in no accordance with approved religious doctrines. All of them seek the same end, the emancipation of the soul from the

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necessity of continuing its existence in a succession of bodies, and its unification with the All-soul; but they differ in regard to the means by which they seek to attain this end.

The astronomical science of the Hindus is a reflection of that of Greece, and its literature is of recent date; but as mathematicians, in arithmetic and geometry, they have shown more independence. Their medical science, although its beginnings go back even to the Veda, in the use of medicinal plants with accompanying incantations, is of little account, and its proper literature by no means ancient.

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SEREVIATIONS.

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----للارتجار بلح الراري Sec. and the fetersburg Constants . Col usua. and the stridy a-Sutra. . 💊 anaw Kadiwana ~ . atta mandra A Cashada V. Verstuski Rishmana. CON NO DA SARIE SARATA. N. News with Madathatas. Wash Wighaduta

MS. Mäiträvanī-Sanhitā. PB. Pancavinça-Brāhmana. R. Rāmāyana. Ragh. Raghuvança. RPr. Rigveda-Prätiçākhya. RV. Rig-Veda. SB. Shadvinça-Brähmana. SV. Sāma-Veda. TA. Tāittirīya-Aranyaka. TB. Täittiríya-Brähmana. TPr. Täittirīya-Prātiçākbya. Tribh. Tribhashyaratna. TS. Tāittirīya-Sanhitā. V. Veda. VPr. Vājasaneyi-Prātiçākhya. VS. Vājasaneyi-Sanhitā.

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CHAPTER I.

ALPHABET.

1. THE natives of India write their ancient and sacred language in a variety of alphabets - generally, in each part of the country, in the same alphabet which they use for their own vernacular. The mode of writing, however, which is employed throughout the heart of Aryan India, or in Hindustan proper, is alone adopted by European scholars: it is called the devanagari.

This name is of doubtful origin and value. A more comprehensive name is nagari (perhaps, 'of the city'); and deva-nagari is 'nagari of the gods,' or 'of the Brahmans.'

2. Much that relates to the history of the Indian alphabets is still obscure. The earliest written monuments of known date in the country are the inscriptions containing the edicts of Açoka or Piyadasi, of about the middle of the third century B. C. They are in two different systems of characters, of which one shows distinct signs of derivation from a Semitic source, while the other is also probably, though much less evidently, of the same origin (Burnell). From the latter, the Lath, or Southern Acoka character (of Girnar), come the later Indian alphabets, both those of the northern Aryan languages, and those of the southern Dravidian languages. The nāgarī, devanāgarī, Bengālī, Guzerātī, and others, are varieties of its northern derivatives; and with them are related some of the alphabets of peoples outside of India - as in Tibet and Farther India - who have adopted Hindu culture or religion.

There is reason to believe that writing was first employed in India for practical purposes - for correspondence and business and the like - and only by degrees came to be applied also to literary use. The literature, to a great extent, and the more fully in proportion to its claimed sanctity and authority, ignores all written record, and assumes to be kept in existence by oral tradition alone.

3. Of the devanagari itself there are minor varieties, depending on differences of locality or of period, as also of individual hand (see examples 1 3

Whitney, Grammar.

in Weber's catalogue of the Berlin Sanskrit MSS., in Rājendralāla Mitra's notices of MSS. in Indian libraries, in the published fac-similes of inscriptions, and so on; and these are in some measure reflected in the type prepared for printing, both in India and in Europe. But a student who makes himself familiar with one style of printed characters will have little difficulty with the others, and will soon learn, by practice, to read the manuscripts. A few specimens of types other than those used in this work will be given in an Appendix.

On account of the difficulty of combining them with the smaller sizes of our Roman and Italic type, the *devanūgarī* characters will be used below only in connection with the first or largest size. And, in accordance with the laudable usage of recent grammars, they will, wherever given, be also transliterated in *italic* letters; while the latter alone will be used in the other sizes.

4. The student may be advised to try to familiarize himself from the start with the $devan\bar{a}gar\bar{i}$ mode of writing. At the same time, it is not necessary that he should do so until, having learned the principal paradigms, he comes to begin reading and analysing and parsing; and many will find the latter the more practical, and in the end equally or more effective, way.

5. The characters of the *devanāgarī* alphabet, and the European letters which will be used in transliterating them, are as follows:

	short.				lo	ng.										
		1	দ্ম	a	1	ন্ম	Ţā									
Vowels : simple	palatal	3	Ł	i	•	ई	ī									
simple	labial	5	ਤ	и		. 9	5ū		•							
	lingual	1	Æ	ŗ		₹.	[Ŧ									
	dental	•	ल्	ļ	[1	. 6	ĮŻ]								
diph-	(p alatal l a bial	u	र	e	Ľ	• ऐ	ā	i								
thongs	l labial	18	म्रो	0	1	. มี	T ā	u								
Visarga																
Anusvāra		16	∸ ,	-	'n	or	ṁ	(se	e '	78)						
	(surd	L	81	ırd a	.sp.	8	sona	nt	5	on.	asp.		nasa	.1
	guttural	17	क	k	18	হ	kh	19	ग	g	20	घ	gh	21	ङ	ñ
N .	palatal	22	च	с	23	क्	ch	24	র	j	25	ক	jh	26	স	ñ
Mutes {	lingual	27	Σ	ţ	28	ठ	ţh	29	3	ġ	30	6	dh	81	पा	ņ
	dental	32	ਜ	t	33	ঘ	th	34	र्	d	35	घ	dh	36	ন	n
Mutes <	labial	37	ष	p	34	फ	ph	39	ন্স	b	40	ਸ	bh	41	म	m

To these may be added a lingual $l \equiv 0$, which in some of the Vedic texts takes the place of $\exists d$ when occurring between two vowels. (54).

6. A few other sounds, recognized by the theories of the Hindu grammarians, but either having no separate characters to represent them, or only very rarely and exceptionally written, will be noticed below (71, 230). Such are the guttural and labial breathings, the nasal semivowels, and others.

7. The order of arrangement given above is that in which the sounds are catalogued and described by the native grammarians; and it has been adopted by European scholars as the alphabetic order, for indexes, dictionaries, etc. (to the Hindus, the idea of an alphabetic arrangement for such practical uses is wanting).

In some works (as the Petersburg lexicon), a visarga which is regarded as equivalent to and exchangeable with a sibilant (172) is, though written as visarga, given the alphabetic place of the sibilant.

8. The theory of the *devanāgarī*, as of the other Indian modes of writing, is syllabic and consonantal. That is to say, it regards as the written unit, not the simple sound, but the syllable (*akṣara*); and further, as the substantial part of the syllable, the consonant (or the consonants) preceding the vowel — this latter being merely implied, or. if written, being written by a subordinate sign attached to the consonant.

9. Hence follow these two principles:

A. The forms of the vowel-characters given in the

1*

I. ALPHABET.

alphabetic scheme above are used only when the vowel forms a syllable by itself, or is not combined with a preceding consonant: that is, when it is initial, or preceded by another vowel. In combination with a consonant, other modes of representation are used.

B. If more consonants than one precede the vowel, forming with it a single syllable, their characters must be combined into a single compound character.

Ordinary Hindu usage does not divide the words of a sentence, any more than the syllables of a word; a final consonant is combined into one syllable with the initial vowel or consonant of the next following word.

10. Under A, it is to be noticed that the modes of indicating a vowel combined with a preceding consonant are as follows:

a. The short $\exists a$ has no written sign at all: the consonant-sign itself implies a following $\exists a$, unless some other vowel-sign is attached to it (or else the *virāma*: 11). Thus the consonant-signs as given above in the alphabetic scheme are really the signs of the syllables ka, kha, etc. etc. (to ha).

b. The long झा \bar{a} is written by a perpendicular stroke after the consonant: thus, जा $k\bar{a}$, या $dh\bar{a}$, ज्या $h\bar{a}$.

c. Short ξ i and long $\dot{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$, by a similar stroke, which for short i is placed before the consonant and for long $\bar{\imath}$ is placed after it, and in either case is connected with the consonant by a hook above the upper line: thus, $\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$.

The hook above, turning to the left or to the right, is historically the essential part of the character, having been originally the whole of it; the hooks were only later prolonged, so as to reach all the way down beside the consonant. In the MSS., they almost never have the horizontal stroke drawn across them above, though this is added in all the printed forms of the characters^{*}.

[•] Thus, originally के ki, की ki: in the MSS., कि. कीं; in print, कि, की.

d. The u-sounds, short and long, are written by hooks attached to the lower end of the consonant-sign: thus, $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ ku, $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ k \overline{u} ; $\overline{\mathfrak{Z}}$ du, $\overline{\mathfrak{Z}}$ d \overline{u} . On account of the necessities of combination, du and d \overline{u} are somewhat disguised: thus, $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$; and the forms with $\overline{\mathfrak{r}}$ r and $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ h are still more irre-

gular: thus, ह ru, द्व rū; ज hu, ह hū. e. The r-vowels, short and long, are written by a subjoined hook, single or double, opening toward the right: thus. ज् kr, ज् kr; द dr, द dr. In the h-sign, the hooks are usually attached to the middle: thus, ज hr, ज hr.

As to the combination of r with preceding r, see below, 14.

f. The *l*-vowel is written with a reduced form of its full initial character: thus, $\frac{1}{2}$ k*l*: the corresponding long has no real occurrence (23), but would be written with a similar reduced sign.

g. The diphthongs are written by strokes, single or double, above the upper line, combined, for \overline{a} o and \overline{a} $\overline{a}u$, with the \overline{a} -sign after the consonant: thus, \overline{a} ke, \overline{a} k $\overline{a}i$; \overline{a} ko, \overline{a} k $\overline{a}u$.

In some devanāgarī MSS. (as in the Bengālī alphabet), the single stroke above, or one of the double ones, is replaced by a sign like the \bar{a} -sign before the consonant: thus, \Box_h ke, \Box_h kāi, \Box_h ko, \Box_h kāu.

11. A consonant-sign, however, is capable of being made to signify the consonant-sound alone, without an added vowel, by having written beneath it a stroke called the *virāma* ('rest, stop'): thus, \overline{T} k, $\overline{\zeta}$ d, \overline{T} h.

Since, as was pointed out above, the Hindus write the words of a sentence continuously, like one word (9, end), the *virāma* is in general called for only when a final consonant occurs before a pause. But it is also occasion-ally resorted to by scribes, or in print, in order to avoid an awkward or difficult combination of consonant-signs; and it is used freely in published texts which for the convenience of beginners have their words printed separately.

12. Under B, it is to be noticed that the consonant combinations are for the most part not at all difficult to

I. ALPHABET.

make or to recognise for one who is familiar with the simple signs. The characteristic part of, a consonant-sign that is to be added to another is taken (to the exclusion of the horizontal or of the perpendicular framing-line, or of both, and they are put together according to convenience, either side by side, or one above the other: in some combinations either arrangement is allowed. The consonant that is to be pronounced first is set before the other in the one order, and above it in the other order.

Examples of the side-by-side arrangement are: गा gga, ज्ञ jja, प्य pya, न्म nma. त्य ttha, भ्य bhya. स्क ska, ष्पा इग़a, त्क tka.

Examples of the above-and-below arrangement are: इत kka, च cca. ज्ञ ñja. द dda. त pta, ल tna.

13. In some cases, however, there is more or less abbreviation or disguise of the independent form of a consonant-sign in combination.

Thus, of न k in का kta, का kla; and in कपा kna etc.; of त t in त tta;

of ξ d in ξ dga. ξ dna. etc.;

of म m and ए y. when following other consonants: thus. का kya. का kma. इस मma. इस मya. स dma. म dya, इस hma. का hya. च chya. च dhya:

of श ç. which generally becomes आ when followed by a consonant: thus. श çra. आ çwa. श çra. ज्य çya. The same change is usual when a vowel-sign is added below: thus. आ çw. आ çr.

Other combinations, of not quite obvious value, are 明 映起, 편 lla. g ddha. g dbha. 要 sta. 要 stha: and the compounds of 夜 h: as 責 knu. 斎 knu.

In a case or two. no trace of the constituent letters is recognisable: thus. র kea. মানুটের.

14. The semivowel τ r, in making combinations with

other consonants, is treated in a wholly peculiar manner, analogous with that of the vowels. If pronounced before another consonant (or consonant-combination), it is written with a hook above, opening to the right (like the subjoined sign of r: 10e): thus, $\frac{1}{24}$ rka, $\frac{1}{24}$ resa (rest rtsna). If pronounced after another consonant (alone or in combination), it is written with a slanting stroke below: thus, $\exists gra$, $\exists pra, \exists sra$ (and $\exists grya, \exists srva$); and, with modifications of the preceding consonant-sign like those noted above, $\exists tra, \exists cra, \exists dra$.

When \overline{r} is to be combined with a following \overline{R} r, it is the vowel which is written in full, with its initial character, and the consonant in subordination to it: thus, \overline{R} rr.

15. Further combinations, of three, or four, or even five consonant-signs, are made according to the same rules. Examples are:

of three consonants, ল ttva, তা ddhya, তা dvya, আ drya, তা dhrya, দেব psva, ছয় çcya, তা ştya. তা hvya;

of four consonants, লা ktrya, হ্রা ñkṣya, ত্য় ṣtrya, নদ্য tsmya;

of five consonants, त्स्न्य rtsnya.

The manuscripts, and the type-fonts as well, differ from one another more in their management of consonant combinations than in any other respect, often having peculiarities which one needs a little practice to understand. It is quite useless to give in a grammar the whole series of possible combinations (many of them excessively rare) which are provided for in any given type-font, or even in all. There is nothing which due familiarity with the simple signs and with the above rules of combination will not enable the student to analyse and explain.

16. A sign called the *avagraha* ('separator') — namely, s — is used in the manuscripts, sometimes in the manner of a hyphen, sometimes as a mark of hiatus, sometimes to mark the elision of initial Ξ a after final \overline{c} e or $\overline{\Xi 1}$ o (135). In printed texts, especially European, it is ordinarily limited to the use last mentioned: thus. ते ऽज्ञवन् te 'bruvan, सो ऽज्ञवीत् so 'bravit, for te abruvan, so abravit.

The sign \circ is used to mark an omission of something. In some texts, it has also the value of a hyphen.

Signs of punctuation are | and ||.

17. The numeral figures are

18. The Hindu grammarians call the different sounds, and the characters representing them, by a $k\bar{a}ra$ ('maker') added to the sound of the letter, if a vowel, or to the letter followed by *a*, if a consonant. Thus, the sound or character *a* is called $ak\bar{a}ra$; *k* is $kak\bar{a}ra$; and so on. But the $k\bar{a}ra$ is also omitted, and *a*, *ka*, etc. are used alone. The *r*, however, is never called $rak\bar{a}ra$, but only *ra* or *repha* ('snarl': the only example of a specific name for an alphabetic element of its class). The *anusvāra* and *visarga* are also known by these names alone.

CHAPTER II.

SYSTEM OF SOUNDS; PRONUNCIATION.

I. Vowels.

19. THE *a*, *i*, and *u*-vowels. The Sanskrit has these three earliest and most universal vowels of Indo-European language, in both short and long form — Ξa and $\Xi \overline{a}$, ξi and $\xi \overline{i}$, $\Im u$ and $\Im \overline{u}$. They are to be pronounced in the "Continental" or "Italian" manner — as in far or father, pin and pique, pull and rule.

20. The a is the openest vowel, an utterance from the ex-

VOWELS.

9

panded throat; it stands, therefore, in no relation of kindred with any of the classes of consonantal sounds. The i and u are close vowels, made with marked approach of the articulating organs to one another: i is palatal, and shades through y into the palatal and guttural consonant-classes; u is similarly related, through v, to the labial class, as involving in its utterance a narrowing and rounding of the lips.

The Paninean scheme (commentary to Pānini's grammar, i. 1. 9) classes a as guttural, but apparently only in order to give that series as well as the rest a vowel: no one of the Prātiçākhyas puts a into one class with k etc. All these authorities concur in calling the i and u-vowels respectively palatal and labial.

21. The short *a* is not pronounced in India with the full openness of \bar{a} , as its corresponding short, but usually as the "neutral vowel" (English so-called "short *u*", of *but*, son, *blood*, etc.). This peculiarity appears very early, being acknowledged by Pāṇini and by two of the Prātiçākhyas (APr. i. 36; VPr. i. 72), which call the utterance samerta, 'covered up, dimmed'. It is, however, of course not original; and it is justly wont to be ignored by Western scholars (except those who have studied in India).

22. The *a*-vowels are the prevailing vowel-sounds of the language, being about twice as frequent as all the others (including diphthongs) taken together. The *i*-vowels, again, are about twice as numerous as the *u*-vowels. And, in each pair, the short vowel is more than twice $(2^{1}/_{2}$ to 3 times) as common as the long.

For more precise estimates of frequency, of these and of the other alphabetic elements, and for the way in which they were obtained, see below, 75.

23. The r and l-vowels. To the three simple vowels already mentioned the Sanskrit adds two others, the r-vowels and the l-vowel, both of them plainly generated by the abbreviation of syllables containing a \overline{r} r or $\overline{eq} l$ along with another vowel: the \overline{n} r coming (almost always: see 237, 241-3) from \overline{n} ar or \overline{r} ra, the $\overline{eq} l$ from $\overline{n} eq al$.

Some of the Hindu grammarians add to the alphabet also a long i; but this is only for the sake of an artificial symmetry, since the sound does not occur in a single genuine word in the language.

24. The vowel \overline{n} r is simply a smooth or untrilled *r*-sound, assuming a vocalic office in syllable-making — as, by a like abbreviation, it has done also in certain Slavonic languages. The vowel \overline{el} *!* is an *l*-sound similarly uttered — like the English *l*-vowel in such words as *able*, *angle*, *addle*.

The modern Hindus pronounce these vowels as ri, $r\bar{r}$, $l\bar{i}$ or even $lr\bar{i}$, having long lost the habit and the facility of giving a vowel value to the pure r and l-sounds. Their example is widely followed by European scholars; and hence also the (distorting and quite objectionable) transliterations ri, $r\bar{i}$, μ . There is no real difficulty in acquiring and practising the true utterance.

Some of the grammarians (see APr. i. 37, note) attempt to define more nearly the way in which, in these vowels, a real r or *l*-element is combined with something else.

25. Like their corresponding semivowels, r and l, these vowels belong respectively in the general lingual and dental classes; the euphonic influence of r and \bar{r} (180) shows this clearly. They are so ranked in the Paninean scheme; but the Prātiçākhyas in general strangely class them with the *jihtāmūlīya* sounds, our "gutturals".

26. The short r is found in every variety of word and of position, and is not rare, being just about as frequent as long \bar{u} . Long \bar{r} is very much more unusual, occurring only in certain plural cases of noun-stems in r (374, 378). The l is met with only in some of the forms and derivatives of a single not very common verbal root (klp).

27. The diphthongs. Of the four diphthongs, two, the $\overline{\zeta}$ e and $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ o, are in great part original Indo-European sounds. In the Sanskrit, they wear the aspect of being products of the increment or strengthening of $\overline{\xi}$ i and \overline{J} u respectively; and they are called the corresponding gunavowels to the latter (see below, 235). The other two, $\overline{\zeta}$ $\overline{a}i$ and $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ $\overline{a}u$, are by the prevalent and preferable opinion held to be of peculiar Sanskrit growth (there is no certain trace of them to be found even in the Zend); they are also in general results of another and higher increment of $\overline{\xi}$ i and \overline{J} u, to which they are called the corresponding vrddhivowels (below, 235). But all are likewise sometimes gene-

DIPHTHONGS.

rated by euphonic combination (127); and $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ o, especially, is common as result of the alteration of a final $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ as (175).

28. The $\overline{\chi}$ e and $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ o are, both in India and in Europe, usually pronounced as they are transliterated — that is, as long e (English "long a", or e in they) and o-sounds, without diphthongal character.

Such they apparently already were to the authors of the Prātiçākhyas, which, while ranking them as diphthongs (sandhyaksara), give rules respecting their pronunciation in a manner implying them to be virtually unitary sounds. But their euphonic treatment (131-4) clearly shows them to have been still at the period when the euphonic laws established themselves, as they of course were at their origin, real diphthongs, ai (a + i) and au (a + u). From them, on the same evidence, the heavier or triddhi diphthongs were distinguished by the length of their aelement, as $\bar{ai} (\bar{a} + i)$ and $\bar{au} (\bar{a} + u)$.

The recognisable distinctness of the two elements in the $v_r ddhi$ -diphthongs is noticed by the Prātiçākhyas (see APr. i. 40, note); but the relation of those elements is either defined as equal, or the a is made of less quantity than the i and u.

29. The lighter or guna-diphthongs are much more frequent (6 or 7 times) than the heavier or $v_T ddhi$ -diphthongs, and the e and $\bar{a}i$ than the o and $\bar{a}u$ (a half more). Both pairs are somewhat more than half as common as the simple i and u-vowels.

30. The general name given by the Hindu grammarians to the vowels is *svara*, 'tone'; the simple vowels are called *samānākṣara*, 'homogeneous syllable', and the diphthongs are called *sandhyakṣara*, 'combination-syllable'. The position of the organs in their utterance is defined to be one of openness, or of non-closure.

As to quantity and accent, see below, 76 ff., 80 ff.

II. Consonants.

31. The Hindu name for 'consonant' is $vya\bar{n}jana$, 'manifester'. The consonants are divided by the grammarians into *sparça*, 'contact' or 'mute', *anta hsthā*, 'intermediate' or 'semivowel', and $\bar{u}sman$, 'spirant'. They will here be taken up and described in this order.

32. Mutes. The mutes, sparça, are so called as involving a complete closure or contact (sparça), and not an approximation

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only, of the mouth-organs by which they are produced. They are divided into five classes or series (*varga*), according to the organs and parts of organs by which the contact is made: and each series is composed of five members, differing according to the accompaniments of the contact.

83. The five mute-series are called respectively guttural, palatal, lingual (or cerebral), dental, and labial; and they are arranged in the order as just mentioned. beginning with the contact made furthest back in the mouth, coming forward from point to point, and ending with the frontmost contact.

84. In each series there are two surd members, two sonant, and one nasal (which is also sonant): for example, in the labial series, $\P p$ and $\P ph$, $\P b$ and $\P bh$, and $\P m$.

The members are by the Hindu grammarians called respectively 'first', 'second', 'third', 'fourth', and 'last' or 'fifth'.

The surd consonants are known as *aghosa*, 'toneless', and the sonants as *ghosavant*, 'having tone'; and the descriptions of the grammarians are in accordance with these terms. All alike recognise a difference of tone, and not in any manner a difference of force, whether of contact or of expulsion, as separating the two great classes in question. That the difference depends on *vivāra*, 'opening', or *sarhvāra*, 'closure' (of the glottis), is also recognised by them.

35. The first and third members of each series are the ordinary corresponding surd and sonant mutes of European languages: thus, \mathfrak{P}_k and \mathfrak{I}_g , \mathfrak{P}_i and \mathfrak{I}_g , \mathfrak{P}_i and \mathfrak{I}_g .

36. Nor is the character of the nasal any more doubtful. What $\underline{\Psi}$ m is to $\underline{\Psi}$ and $\underline{\underline{\Psi}}$ b, or $\underline{\overline{\Psi}}$ n to $\underline{\overline{\Pi}}$ t and $\underline{\underline{\zeta}}$ d, that is also each other nasal to its own series of mutes: a sonant expulsion into and through the nose, while the mouthorgans are in the mute-contact.

The Hindu grammarians give distinctly this definition. The nasal (anunāsika, 'passing through the nose') sounds are declared to be formed by mouth and nose together; or their nasality $\langle \bar{a}nun\bar{a}sikya \rangle$ to be given them by unclosure of the nose.

37. The second and fourth of each series are aspirates: thus, beside the surd mute $\overline{a_k}$ we have the corresponding

ASPIRATE MUTES.

surd aspirate \underline{a} kh, and beside the sonant $\underline{\eta}$ g, the corresponding sonant aspirate \underline{q} gh. Of these, the precise character is more obscure and difficult.

That the aspirates, all of them, are real mutes or contact sounds, and not fricatives (like European th and ph and ch, etc.), is beyond question.

It is also not doubtful in what way the surd th, for example, differs from the unaspirated t: such aspirates are found in many Asiatic languages, and even in some European: they involve the slipping-out of an audible bit of *flatus* or aspiration between the breach of mute-closure and the following sound, whatever it may be. They are accurately enough represented by the th etc., with which, in imitation of the Latin treatment of the similar ancient Greek aspirates, we are accustomed to write them.

The sonant aspirates are generally understood and described as made in a similar way, with a perceptible *h*-sound after the breach of sonant mute-closure. But there are insuperable theoretical difficulties in the way of accepting this explanation; and some of the best phonetic observers (as A. J. Ellis) deny that the modern Hindu pronunciation is of such a character, and define the element following the mute as a "glottal buzz", rather, or an emphasized utterance of the beginning of the succeeding sound. The question is one of great difficulty, and upon it the opinions of the highest authorities are still much at variance. Sonant aspirates are still in use in India, in the pronunciation of the vernacular as well as of the learned languages.

By the Prātiçākhyas, the aspirates of both classes are called somman: which might mean either 'accompanied by a rush of breath' (taking \bar{u}_{sman} in its more etymological sense), or 'accompanied by a spirant' (below, 59). And some authorities define the surd aspirates as made by the combination of each surd non-aspirate with its own corresponding surd spirant; and the sonant aspirates, of each sonant non-aspirate with the sonant spirant, the h-sound (below, 65). But this would make the two classes of aspirates of quite diverse character, and would also make th the same as ts, th as ts, chas e_{T} — which is in any measure plausible only of the last. Pāṇini has no name for aspirates; the scheme given in his comment (to i. 1.9) attributes to them mahāprāṇa, 'great expiration', and to the non-aspirates alpaprāṇa, 'small expiration'.

It is usual among European scholars to pronounce both classes of aspirates as the corresponding non-aspirates with a following h: for example, $\exists th$ nearly as in English boathook, $\boxdot ph$ as in haphazard, $\exists dh$ as in madhouse, and so on. This is (as we have seen above) confessedly accurate only as regards the surd aspirates.

38. The sonant aspirates are (in the opinion of most), or at least represent, original Indo-European sounds, while the surd

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aspirates are generally regarded as a special Indian development. The former are more than twice as common as the latter. The unaspirated (non-nasal) mutes are very much more frequent (5 times) than the aspirates (for the special frequency of bh and original gh, see 50 and 66); and among them the surds are more numerous $(2^{1}/_{2}$ times) than the sonants. The nasals (chiefly n and m) are nearly as frequent as the surd non-aspirates.

We take up now the several mute-series.

39. Guttural series: $\overline{\eta}$ k, $\overline{\eta}$ kh, $\overline{\eta}$ g, $\overline{\eta}$ gh, $\overline{\varsigma}$ \overline{n} . These are the ordinary European k and g-sounds, with their corresponding aspirates and nasal (the last, like English ng in singing).

The gutturals are defined by the Prātiçākhyas as made by contact of the base of the tongue with the base of the jaw, and they are called, from the former organ, *jihvāmūlīya*, 'tongue-root sounds'. The Paninean scheme describes them simply as made in the throat (*kantha*). From the euphonic influence of a k on a following s (below, 180), we may perhaps infer that in their utterance the tongue was well drawn back into the hinder mouth.

40. The k is by far the commonest of the guttural series, occurring considerably more often than all the other four taken together. The nasal, except as standing before one of the others of the series, is found only as final (after the loss of a following k), and in a very small number of words.

41. The Sanskrit guttural series represents only a minority of Indo-European gutturals; these last have suffered more and more general corruption than any other class of consonants. By processes of alteration which are proved to have begun in the Indo-European period, since the same words exhibit connected changes also in other languages of the family, the palatal mutes, the palatal sibilant g, and the aspiration h, have come from gutturals. See these various sounds below.

42. Palatal series: $\exists c, \ \ ch, \ \ s j, \ \ jh, \ \ n$. This whole series is derivative, being generated by the corruption of original gutturals. The c comes from an original k — as does also, by another degree of alteration, the palatal sibilant c (see below, 64). The j, in like manner, comes from a g; but the Sanskrit j includes in itself two degrees of alteration, one corresponding to the alteration of k to c, the other to that of k to c(see below, 219: in the Zend, these two degrees are held distinctly apart). The c is somewhat more common than the j (about as four to three). The aspirate ch is very much less frequent (a tenth of c), and comes from the original group sk. The sonant aspirate jh is excessively rare (occurring but once in the Vedic texts, and not half-a-dozen times in the Brāhmanas); where found, it is either onomatopoetic or of anomalous or not Indo-European origin (in the so-called root $u_j\lambda$, it comes from j and λ). The nasal, \bar{n} , never occurs except immediately before — or, in a small number of words, also after (201) one of the others of the series.

43. Hence, in the euphonic processes of the language, the treatment of the palatals is in many respects peculiar. In some situations, the original unaltered guttural shows itself — or, as it appears from the point of view of the Sanskrit, the palatal reverts to its original guttural. No palatal ever occurs as a final. The j is differently treated, according as it represents the one or the other degree of alteration. And c and j (except artificially, in the algebraic rules of the grammarians) do not interchange, as corresponding surd and sonant.

44. The palatal mutes are by European scholars, as by the modern Hindus also, pronounced with the compound sounds of English ch and j (in *church* and *judge*).

Their description by the old Hindu grammarians, however, gives them a not less absolutely simple character than belongs to the other mutes. They are called $t\bar{a}lavya$, 'palatal', and declared to be formed against the palate by the middle of the tongue. They seem to have been, then, brought forward in the mouth from the guttural point, and made against the hard palate at a point not far from the lingual one (below, 45), but with the upper flat surface of the tongue instead of its point. Such sounds, in all languages, pass easily into the (English) *ch* and *j*-sounds. The value of the *ch* as making the preceding vowel "long by position" (227), and its frequent origination from $t + \varphi$ (203), lead to the suspicion that it, at least, may have had this character from the beginning: compare 37, above.

45. Lingual series: ξt , ξth , ξd , ξdh , ξ

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46. The linguals are another non-original series of sounds, coming mainly from the phonetic alteration of the next series, the dentals, but also in part occurring in words that have no traceable Indo-European connection, and are perhaps derived from the aboriginal languages of India. The tendency to lingualization is a positive one in the history of the language : dentals easily pass into linguals under the influence of contiguous or neighbormg lingual sounds, but not the contrary; and all the sounds of the class become markedly more frequent in the later literature. The conditions of their ordinary occurrence are briefly these: **a.** s comes from s, much more rarely from c, j, ks, in euphonic circumstances stated below (180, 218, etc.); b. a dental mute following s is assimilated to it, becoming lingual t, th, n; c. n is often changed to n after a lingual vowel or semivowel or sibilant in the same word 189 etc.): d. dh, which is of very rare occurrence, comes from assimilation of a dental after s (198 a) or λ (222); e. t and d come occasionally by substitution for some other sound which is not allowed to stand as final 142, 145. When originated in these ways, the lingual letters may be regarded as normal: in any other cases of their occurrence. they are either products of abnormal corruption, or signs of the non-Indo-European character of the words in which they appear.

In a certain number of passages numerically examined (below, 75), the abnormal occurences of lingual mutes were less than half of the whole number (74 out of 159), and most of them (43) were of ϕ : all were found more frequent in the later passages. In the Rig-Veda, only 15 words have an abnormal f; only 6, such a fA; only 1, such a dA; about 20 (including 9 roots, nearly all of which have derivatives) show an abnormal d, besides 9 that have md; and 30 (including 1 root) show a ϕ .

Taken all together, the linguals are by far the rarest class of mutes about 1^{1} per cent. of the alphabet — hardly half as frequent even as the palatals.

47. Dental series: n t, u th, z d, u dh, n n. These are called by the Hindus also dantya, dental, and are described as formed at the teeth (or at the roots of the teeth), by the tip of the tongue. They are practically the equivalents of our European t, d, n.

But the modern Hindus are said to pronounce their dentals with the tip of the tongue thrust well forward against the upper teeth, so that these sounds get a slight tinge of the quality belonging to the English and Modern Greek th-sounds. The absence of that quality in the European (aspecially the English) dentals is doubtless the reason why to the ear of a Hindu the latter appear more analogous with his linguals, and he is apt to use the linguals in writing European words.

48. The dentals are one of the three Indo-European original mute-classes. In their occurrence in Sanskrit they are just about as frequent as all the other four classes taken together.

49. Labial series: $\P p$, $\P ph$, $\P b$, $\P bh$, $\P m$. These sounds are called *osthya*, 'labial', by the Hindu grammarians also. They are, of course, the equivalents of our p, b, m.

50. The numerical relations of the labials are a little peculiar. Owing to the absence (or almost entire absence) of b in Indo-European, the Sanskrit b also is greatly exceeded in frequency by bh, which is the most common of all the sonant aspirates, as ph is the least common of the surd. The nasal m (notwithstanding its frequent euphonic mutations when final: 212 ff.) occurs just about as often as all the other four members of the series together.

51. Semivowels: \overline{U} y, \overline{V} r, $\overline{e}l$, $\overline{q}v$. The name given to this class of sounds by the Hindu grammarians is *antahsthā*, 'standing between' — either from their character as utterances intermediate between vowel and consonant, or (more probably) from the circumstance of their being placed between the mutes and spirants in the arrangement of the consonants.

The semivowels are clearly akin with the several mute series in their physical character, and they are classified along with those series — though not without some discordances of view — by the Hindu grammarians. They are said to be produced with the organs "slightly in contact" (*isatsprsta*), or "in imperfect contact" (*dulpsprsta*).

52. The \mathbf{T} r is clearly shown by its influence in the euphonic processes of the language to be a lingual sound, or one made with the the tip of the tongue turned up into the dome of the palate. It thus resembles the English smooth r, and, like this, seems to have been untrilled.

The Paninean scheme reckons r as a lingual. None of the Prātiçākhyas, however, does so; nor are they entirely consistent with one another in its description. For the most part, they define it as made at 'the roots of the teeth'. This would give it a position like that of the vibrated r; but no authority hints at a vibration as belonging to it.

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In point of frequency, r stands very high on the list of consonants; it is about equal with v, n, m, and y, and only exceeded by t.

53. The $e_1 l$ is a sound of dental position, and is so defined and classed by all the native authorities.

The peculiar character of an *l*-sound, as involving expulsion at the sides of the tongue along with contact at its tip, is not noticed by any Hindu phonetist.

It is a disputed question whether r and l were distinguished from one another in Indo-European speech; in the Sanskrit, at any rate, they are very widely interchangeable, both in roots and in suffixes: there is hardly a root containing an l which does not show also forms with r; words written with the one letter are found in other texts, or in other parts of the same texts, written with the other. In the later periods of the language they are more separated, and the l becomes decidedly more frequent, though always much rarer than the r (only as 1 to 7 or 8 or 10).

54. Some of the Vedic texts have another *l*-sound, written with a slightly different character (it is given at the end of the alphabet, 5), which is substituted for a lingual d (as also the same followed by λ for a $d\lambda$) when occurring between two vowels. It is, then, doubtless a lingual *l*, one made by breach (at the sides of the tongue) of the lingual instead of the dental muteclosure.

55. The \overline{q} y in Sanskrit, as in other languages generally, stands in the closest relationship with the vowel \overline{z} i (short or long); the two exchange with one another in cases innumerable.

And in the Veda (as the metre shows) an i is very often to be read where, in conformity with the rules of the later Sanskrit euphony, a y is written. Thus, the final *i*-vowel of a word remains *i* before an initial vowel; that of a stem maintains itself unchanged before an ending; and an ending of derivation — as ya, tya — has *i* instead of y. Such cases will be considered in more detail later, as they arise. The constancy of the phenomenon in certain words and classes of words shows that this was no merely optional interchange. Very probably, the Sanskrit y had everywhere more of an *i*-character than belongs to the corresponding European sound.

56. The y is by its physical character a palatal utterance; and it is classed as a palatal semivowel by the Hindu phonetists. It is one of the most common of Sanskrit sounds.

57. The $\exists v$ is pronounced as English or French v(German w) by the modern Hindus - except when pre-

SEMIVOWELS; SPIRANTS.

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ceded by a consonant in the same syllable, in which case it has the sound of English w; and European scholars follow the same practice (with or without the same exception).

By its whole treatment in the euphony of the language. however, the v stands related to an u-vowel precisely as y to an i-vowel. It is, then, a v only according to the original Roman value of that letter - that is to say, a w-sound in the English sense: though (as was stated above for the y) it may well have been less markedly separated from u than English w, more like French ou in oui etc. But, as the original w has in most European languages been changed to v (English), so also in India, and that from a very early time: the Paninean scheme and two of the Praticakhyas (VPr. and TPr.) distinctly define the sound as made between the upper teeth and the lower lip which, of course, identifies it with the ordinary modern v-sound. As a matter of practice, the usual pronunciation need not be seriously objected to: yet the student should not fail to note that the rules of Sanskrit euphony and the name of "semivowel" have no application except to a w-sound in the English sense : a v-sound (German w) is no semivowel, but a spirant, standing on the same articulate stage with the English th-sounds and the f.

58. V is classed as a labial semivowel by the Hindu phonetical authorities. It has a somewhat greater frequency than the y.

In the Veda, under the same circumstances as the y (above, 55), v is to be read as u.

59. Spirants. Under the name $\bar{u}sman$ (literally 'heat, steam, *flatus*'), which is usually and well represented by 'spirant', some of the Hindu authorities include all the remaining sounds of the alphabet; others apply the term only to the three sibilants and the aspiration — to which it will here also be restricted.

The term is not found in the Paninean scheme; by different treatises the guttural and labial breathings, these and the visarga, or all these and anusvāra, are called $\bar{u}sman$ (see APr. i. 31 note). The organs of utterance are described as being in the position of the mute-series to which each spirant belongs respectively, but unclosed, or unclosed in the middle.

60. The \overline{H} s. Of the three sibilants, or surd spirants, this is the one of plainest and least questioned character:

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it is the ordinary European s — a hiss expelled between the tongue and the roof of the mouth directly behind the upper front teeth.

It is, then, dental, as it is classed by all the Hindu authorities. It is the one primitive Indo-European sibilant. Notwithstanding the great losses which it suffers in Sanskrit euphony, by conversion to the other sibilants, to r, to visarga, etc., it is still very high among the consonants in the order of frequency, or considerably more common than both the other two sibilants together.

61. The \mathbf{q} s. As to the character of this sibilant, also, there is no ground for real question: it is the one produced in the lingual position, or with the tip of the tongue reverted into the dome of the palate. It is, then, a kind of sh-sound; and by European Sanskritists it is pronounced as an ordinary sh (French ch, German sch), no attempt being made (any more than in the case of the other lingual sounds: 45) to give it its proper lingual quality.

Its lingual character is shown by its whole euphonic influence, and it is described and classed as lingual by all the Hindu authorities (the APr. adds, i. 23, that the tongue in its utterance is trough-shaped). In its audible quality, it is a sh-sound rather than a s-sound; and, in the considerable variety of sibilant-utterance, even in the same community, it may coincide with some people's sh. Yet the general and normal sh is palatal (see below, **63**); and therefore the sign s, marked in accordance with the other lingual letters, is the only unexceptionable transliteration for the Hindu character.

In modern pronunciation in India, s is much confounded with kh; and the MSS. are apt to exchange the characters. Later grammatical treatises, too, take note of the relationship (see Weber's Prātijfiā, p. 84).

62. This sibilant (as was noticed above, 46, and will be more particularly explained below, 180 ff.) is no original sound, but a product of the lingualization of s under certain euphonic conditions. The exceptions are extremely few (9 out of 145 noted occurrences: 75), and of a purely sporadic character. The Rig-Veda has (apart from γ sah, 182) only twelve words which show a s under other conditions.

The final / ---

4 a more independent

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value, and does not revert to s when the euphonic conditions are removed, but shows anomalous forms (225).

63. The \Im φ . This sibilant is by all the native authorities classed and described as palatal, nor is there anything in its history or its euphonic treatment to cast doubt on its character as such. It is, then, made with the flat of the tongue against the forward part of the palatal arch - that is to say, it is the usual and normal *sh*-sound. By European scholars it is variously pronounced — more often, perhaps, as *s* than as *sh*.

The two sh-sounds, g and c, are made in the same part of the month (the g probably rather further back), but with a different part of the tongue; and they are doubtless not more unlike than, for example, the two t-sounds, written f and t; and it would be not less proper to pronounce them both as one sh than to pronounce the linguals and dentals alike. To neglect the difference of s and c is much less to be approved. The very near relationship of g and c is attested by their euphonic treatment, which is to a considerable extent the same, and by their not infrequent confusion by the writers of manuscripts.

64. As was mentioned above (41), the c, like c, comes from the corruption of an original k-sound, by loss of mutecontact as well as forward shift of the articulating point. In virtue of this derivation, it sometimes (though less often than c) "reverts" to k — that is, the original k appears instead of it; while, on the other hand, as a sh-sound, it is to a certain extent convertible to s. In point of frequency, it slightly exceeds the latter.

65. The remaining spirant, $\overline{\mathfrak{R}} h$, is ordinarily pronounced like the usual European surd aspiration h.

This is not, however, its true character. It is defined by all the native authorities as not a surd element, but a sonant (or else an utterance intermediate between the two); and its whole value in the euphony of the language is that of a sonant: but what is its precise value is very hard to say. The Paninean scheme ranks it as guttural, as it does also a: this means nothing. The Prātiçākhyas bring it into no relation with the guttural class: one of them quotes the opinion of some authorities that "it has the same position with the beginning of the following vowel" (TPr. ii. 47) — which so far identifles it with our h. There is nothing in its euphonic influence to mark it as retaining any trace of gutturally articulated character. By some of the s phonetists it is identified with the aspiration of the sonant aspirates — with the element by which, for example, gh differs from g. This view is supported by the derivation of h from the aspirates (next paragraph), by that of l + h from dh (54), and by the treatment of initial h after a final mute (163).

66. The λ , as already noticed, is not an original sound, but comes in nearly all cases from an older gh (for the few instances of its derivation from dh and bh, see below, 223). It is a vastly more frequent sound than the unchanged gh (namely, as 7 to 1): more frequent, indeed, than any of the guttural mutes except k. It appears, like j (219), to include in itself two stages of corruption of gh: one corresponding with that of k to c, the other with that of k to c_j ; see below, 223, for the roots belonging to the two classes respectively. Like the other sounds of guttural derivation, it sometimes exhibits "reversion" to its original.

67. The : \hbar , or visarga (visarjanīya, as it is uniformly called by the Prātiçākhyas and by Pāṇini, probably as 'belonging to the end' of a word), appears to be merely a surd breathing, a final \hbar -sound (in the European sense of \hbar), uttered in the articulating position of the preceding vowel.

One Prātiçākhya (TPr. ii. 48) gives just this last description of it. It is by various authorities classed with h, or with h and a: all of them are alike sounds in whose utterance the mouth-organs have no definite shaping action.

68. The visarga is not original, but always only a substitute for final s or r, neither of which is allowed to maintain itself unchanged. It is a comparatively recent member of the "alphabetic system; the other euphonic changes of final s and rhave not passed through visarga as an intermediate stage. And the Hindu authorities are considerably discordant with one another as to how far $\frac{1}{2}$ is a necessary substitute, and how far a permitted one, alternative with a sibilant, before a following initial surd.

69. Before a surd guttural or labial, respectively, some of the native authorities permit, while others require, conversion of final s or r into the so-called *jikeāmūlīya* and *upadhmānīya* spirants. It may be fairly questioned, perhaps, whether these two sounds are not pure grammatical abstractions, devised (like the long *l*-vowel: **23**) in order to round out the alphabet to greater symmetry. At any rate, neither printed texts nor manuscripts (except in the rarest and most sporadic cases) make any account of them. Whatever individual character they may have must be,

ANUSVABA.

it would seem, in the direction of the (German) ch and f-sounds. When written at all, they are wont to be transliterated by χ and φ .

70. The : anusvāra, \dot{n} or \dot{m} , is a nasal sound lacking that closure of the organs which is required to make a nasal mute (36); in its utterance there is nasal resonance along with some degree of openness of the mouth.

71. There is discordance of opinion both among the Hindu phonetists and their modern European successors respecting the real character of this element: hence a little detail is necessary here with regard to its occurrence and their views of it.

Certain nasals in Sanskrit are of servile character, always to be assimilated to a following consonant, of whatever character that may be. Such are final m in sentence-combination (213), the penultimate nasal of a root, and a nasal of increment (255) in general. If one of these nasals stands before a contact-letter or mute, it becomes a nasal mute corresponding to the latter - that is, a nasal utterance in the same position of the mouth-organs which gives the succeeding mute. If, on the other hand, the following consonant does not involve a contact (being a semivowel or spirant), the nasal element is also without contact: it is a nasal utterance with unclosed mouthorgans. The question is, now, whether this nasal utterance becomes merely a nasal infection of the preceding vowel, turning it into a nasal vowel (as in French on, en, un, etc., by reason of a similar loss of a nasal mute); or whether it is an element of more individual character, having place between the vowel and the consonant; or, once more, whether it is sometimes the one thing and sometimes the other. The opinions of the Prātiçākhyas and Pānini are briefly as follows:

The Atharva-Prātiçākhya holds that the result is everywhere a nasalized vowel, except when n or m is assimilated to a following l; in that case, the n or m becomes a nasal l: that is, the nasal utterance is made in the l-position, and has a perceptible l-character.

The other Prātiçākhyas teach a similar conversion into a nasal counterpart to the semivowel, or nasal semivowel, before y and l and v (not before r also). In most of the other cases where the Atharva-Prātiçākhya acknowledges a nasal vowel — namely, before r and the spirants — the others teach the intervention after the vowel of a distinct nasal element, called the anusvāra, 'after-tone'.

Of the nature of this nasal afterpiece to the vowel no intelligibly clear account is given. It is said (RPr.) to be either vowel or consonant; it is declared (RPr., VPr.) to be made with the nose alone, or (TPr.) to be nasal like the nasal mutes; it is held by some (RPr.) to be the sonant tone of the nasal mutes; in its formation, as in that of vowel and spirant, there is (RPr.) no contact. As to its quantity, see farther on.

There are, however, certain cases and classes of cases where these other

authorities also acknowledge a nasal vowel. So, especially, wherever a final n is treated (208) as if it were ns (its historically older form); and also in a small number of specified words. They also mentiou the doctrine of nasal vowel instead of *anusvāra* as held by some (and TPr. is uncertain and inconsistent in its choice between the one and the other).

In Pämini, finally, the prevailing doctrine is that of *anusvāra* everywhere; and it is even allowed in many cases where the Prāticākhyas prescribe only a nasal mute. But a nasal semivowel is also allowed instead before a semivowel, and a nasal vowel is allowed in the cases (mentioned above) where some of the Prāticākhyas require it by exception.

It is evidently a fair question whether this discordance and uncertainty of the Hindu phonetists is owing to a real difference of utterance in different classes of cases and in different localities, or whether to a different scholastic analysis of what is really everywhere the same utterance. If *anusvāra* is a nasal element following the vowel, it cannot well be any thing but either a prolongation of the same vowel-sound with nasality added, or a nasalised bit of neutral-vowel sound (in the latter case, however, the altering influence of an *i* or *u*-vowel on a following *s* ought to be prevented, which is not the case: see 183).

72. The assimilated nasal element, whether viewed as nasalized vowel, nasal semivowel, or independent *anusvāra*, has the value of something added, in making a heavy syllable, or length by position (79).

The Prātiçākhyas (VPr., RPr.) give determinations of the quantity of the anusvāra combining with a short and with a long vowel respectively to make a long syllable.

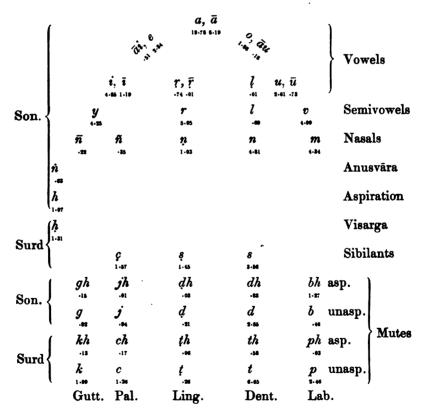
73. Two different signs, z and z, are found in the MSS., indicating the nasal sound here treated of. Usually they are written above the syllable, and there they seem most naturally to imply a nasal affection of the vowel of the syllable, a nasal (anunāsika) vowel. Hence some texts (Sāma and Yajur Vedas), when they mean a real anusvāra, bring one of the signs down into the ordinary consonant-place; but the usage is not general. As between the two signs, some MSS. employ, or tend to employ, the z where a nasalized (anunāsika) vowel is to be recognized, and elsewhere the z; and this distinction is consistently observed in many European printed texts; and the former is called the anunāsika sign: but it is very doubtful whether the two are not originally and properly equivalent.

It is a very common custom of the manuscripts to write the *anusvāra*-sign for any nasal following the vowel of a syllable, either before another consonant or as final (not before a vowel), without any reference to whether it is to be pronounced as nasal mute, nasal semivowel, or *anusvāra*. Some printed texts follow this slovenly and undesirable habit; but most write a nasal mute whenever it is to be pronounced — excepting where it is an assimilated m (213).

It is convenient also in transliteration to distinguish the assimilated m by a special sign, \dot{m} , from the *anusvāra* of more independent origin, \dot{n} ; and this method will be followed in the present work.

74. This is the whole system of sounds recognized by the written character; for certain transitional sounds, more or less widely recognized in the theories of the Hindu phonetists, see below, 230.

75. The whole spoken alphabet, then, may be arranged in the following manner, so as to show, so far as is possible in a single scheme, the relations and important classifications of its various members:



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The figures set under the characters give the average percentage of frequency of each sound, found by counting the number of times which it occurred in an aggregate of 10,000 sounds of continuous text, in 10 different passages, of 1,000 sounds each, selected from different epochs of the literature:

namely, two from the Rig-Veda, one from the Atharva-Veda, two from different Brāhmaņas, and one each from Manu, Bhagavad-Gītā, Çakuntalā, Hitopadeça, and Vāsavadattā^{*}.

III. Quantity of sounds and syllables.

76. The Hindu grammarians take the pains to define the quantity of a consonant (without distinction among consonants of different classes) as half that of a short vowel.

77. They also define the quantity of a long $(d\bar{u}rgha)$ vowel or diphthong as twice that of a short vowel — making no distinction in this respect between the guna and the *orddhi*-diphthongs.

78. Besides these two vowel-quantities, the Hindus acknowledge a third, called *pluta* (literally 'swimming'), or protracted, and having three *moras*, or three times the quantity of a short vowel. A protracted vowel is marked by a following figure 3: thus, $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ 3.

The protracted vowels are practically of rare occurrence (in RV., three cases; in AV., fifteen; in the Brāhmaņa literature, rather more frequent). They are used in cases of questioning, especially of a balancing between two alternatives, and also of calling to a distance or urgently. The protraction is of the last syllable in a word, or in a whole phrase; and the protracted syllable has usually the acute tone, in addition to any other accent the word may have; sometimes it takes also anusvāra, or is made nasal.

Examples are: adh dh, $svid \bar{a}si d up dri svid \bar{a}si d (RV.)$, 'was it, forsooth, below? was it, forsooth, above?' id dm bh d u d d d m d t (AV.), 'saying, is this more, or is that?' dgn d d i p d tn v d d h, somam piba (TS.), 'oh Agni! thou with thy spouse! drink the soma'.

A diphthong is protracted by prolongation of its first or *a*-element: thus, *e* to $\bar{a}3i$, *o* to $\bar{a}3u$.

* See J. A. O. S., vol. X.

The sign of protraction is also sometimes written as the result of accentual combination, when so-called kampa occurs: see below, 90b.

79. For metrical purposes, syllables (not vowels) are distinguished by the grammarians as 'heavy' (guru) or 'light' (laghu). A syllable is heavy if its vowel is long, or short and followed by more than one consonant ("long by position"). Anusvāra and visarga count as full consonants in making a heavy syllable. The last syllable of a $p\bar{a}da$ (primary division of a verse) is reckoned as either heavy or light.

The distinction in terms between the difference of long and short in vewel-sound and that of heavy and light in syllable-construction is valuable, and should be retained.

IV. Accent.

80. The phenomena of accent are, by the Hindu grammarians of all ages alike, described and treated as depending on a variation of tone or pitch; of any difference of stress involved, they make no account.

81. The primary tones (svara) or accent-pitches are two: a higher (udātta, 'raised'), or acute; and a lower (anudātta, 'not raised'), or grave. A third (called svarita: a term of doubtful meaning), is always of secondary origin, being (when not enclitic: see below, 85) the result of actual combination of an acute vowel and a following grave vowel into one syllable. It is also uniformly defined as compound in pitch, a union of higher and lower tone within the limits of a single syllable. It is thus identical in physical character with the Greek and Latin circumflex, and fully entitled to be called by the same name.

82. Strictly, therefore, there is but one distinction of tone in the Sanskrit accentual system: the accented syllable is raised in tone above the unaccented; while then further, in certain cases of the fusion of an accented and an unaccented element into one syllable, that syllable retains the compounded tone of both elements.

83. The *svarita* or circumflex is only rarely found on a pure long vowel or diphthong, but almost always on a syllable in which a vowel, short or long, is preceded by a y or v representing an originally acute i or u-vowel.

In transliteration, in this work, the $ud\bar{a}tta$ or acute will be marked with the ordinary sign of acute, and the *svarita* or circumflex (as being a downward slide of the voice forward) with what is usually called the grave accent: thus, d, acute, $y\dot{a}$ or $v\dot{a}$, circumflex.

84. The Prātiçākhyas distinguish and name separately the circumflexed tones arising by different processes of combination: thus, the circumflex is called

a. Ksāipra ('quick'), when an acute i or u-vowel (short or long) is converted into y or v before a dissimilar vowel of grave tone: thus, vydpta from vf-āpta, apsvantār from apsú antār.

b. $J\bar{a}tya$ ('native') or nitya ('own'), when the same combination lies further back, in the make-up of a stem or form, and so is constant, or belongs to a word in all circumstances of its occurrence: thus, kva (from kúa), svar (súar), nyak (níak), budhnya (budhnía), kanya (kaníā), nadyas (nadí-as), tanva (tanú-ā).

The words of both these classes are in the Veda, in the great majority of cases, to be read with restoration of the acute vowel as a separate syllable: thus, apsú antár, súar, madías, etc. In some texts, part of them are written correspondingly: thus, súvar, tanúvā, budhníya.

c. Praclisia, when the acute and grave vowels are of such character that they are fused into a long vowel or diphthong (128): thus divi 'va (RV. and AV.), from diví iva; sùdgātā (TS.), from sú-udgātā; naì 'và 'cnīyāt (ÇB.), from ná evá acnīyāt.

d. Abhinihita, when an initial grave a is absorbed by a final acute ℓ or δ (135): thus, t2 'bruvan, from t ℓ abruvan; sò 'bravit, from s δ abravit.

85. But further, the Hindu grammarians agree in declaring the (naturally grave) syllable following an acute, whether in the same or in another word, to be *svarita* or circumflex — unless, indeed, it be itself followed by an acute or circumflex; in which case it retains its grave tone. This is called by European scholars the enclitic or dependent circumflex.

Thus, in *téna* and *té ca*, the syllable *na* and word *ca* are regarded and marked as circumflex; but in *téna té* and *té ca* svàr they are grave.

METHODS OF WRITING ACCENT.

This seems to mean that the voice, which is borne up at the higher pitch to the end of the acute syllable, does not ordinarily drop to grave pitch by an instantaneous movement, but descends by a more or less perceptible slide in the course of the following syllable. No Hindu authority suggests the theory of a middle or intermediate tone for the enclitic, any more than for the independent circumflex. For the most part, the two are identified with one another, in treatment and designation. The enclitic circumflex is likewise divided into a number of sub-varieties, with different names: they are of too little consequence to be worth reporting.

86. The essential difference of the two kinds of circumflex is shown clearly enough by these facts: **a.** the independent circumflex takes the place of the acute as the proper accent of a word, while the enclitic is the mere shadow following an acute, and following it in another word precisely as in the same word; **b.** the independent circumflex maintains its character in all situations, while the enclitic before a following circumflex or acute loses its circumflex character, and becomes grave; moreover, **c.** in many of the systems of marking accent (below, **88**), the two are quite differently indicated.

87. The accentuation is marked in manuscripts only of the older literature: namely, in the different Vedic texts, in two of the Brāhmaņas (Tāittirīya and Çatapatha), and in the Tāittirīya-Āraņyaka. There are a number of methods of writing accent, more or less different from one another; the one found in MSS. of the Rig-Veda, which is most widely known, and of which most of the others are only slight modifications, is as follows: the acute syllable is left unmarked; the circumflex, whether independent or enclitic, has a brief perpendicular stroke above; and the grave next preceding an acute or (independent) circumflex has a brief horizontal stroke below. Thus,

म्याम agnim; जुक्तीत juhóti; तुन्वा tanvà; के kvà.

The introductory grave stroke below, however, cannot be given if an acute syllable is initial, whence an unmarked syllable at the beginning of a word is to be understood as acute; and hence also, if several grave syllables precede an acute at the beginning of a sentence, they must all alike have the grave sign. Thus,

इन्द्रेः indrah; ते te; कार्टियमि karisyási; त्विज्ञाता tuvijātā.

All the grave syllables, however, which follow a marked circumflex are left unmarked, until the occurrence of another accented syllable causes the one which precedes it to take the preparatory stroke below. Thus,

> मुद्धीकिसंदक् sudrçikasamdrk ; मुद्धीकिसंदुग्गवाम् sudrçikasamdrg gávām.

87]

but

II. SYSTEM OF SOUNDS.

88-

88. The other methods it is not worth while to attempt to set forth. They may be found illustrated in the different texts, and explained by the editors of them. In part, their peculiarities consist in other forms or places given to the grave and circumflex signs. In some methods, the acute is itself marked, by a slight stroke above. In several, the independent circumflex is distinguished from the enclitic. The most peculiar systems are the scanty and imperfect one of the Çatapatha-Brāhmana, with a single sign, written below; and the highly intricate one of the Sāma-Veda, with a dozen different signs, written above.

89. In this work, as everything given in the devan $\bar{a}gar\bar{a}$ characters is also given in transliteration, it will in general be unnecessary to mark the accent except in the transliterated form; where, however, the case is otherwise, there will be adopted the method * of marking only the accented syllables, the acute and the independent circumflex : the latter by the usual svarita-sign, the former by a small u (for $ud\bar{a}tta$) above the syllable : thus,

इन्हे indra, मेरी agne, स्वेर svar, नय्येस nadyas.

These being given, everything else which the Hindu theory recognises as dependent on and accompanying them can readily be understood as implied.

90. The theory of the Sanskrit accent, as here given (a consistent and intelligible body of phenomena), has been overlaid by the Hindu theorists, especially of the Prātiçākhyas, with a number of added features, of a much more questionable character. Thus:

a. The unmarked grave syllables, following a circumflex (either at the end of a sentence, or till the near approach of another acute), are declared to have the same high tone with the (also unmarked) acute. They are called *pracaya* or *pracita* ('accumulated': because liable to occur in an indefinite series of successive syllables).

b. The circumflex, whether independent or enclitic, is declared to begin on a higher pitch than acute, and to descend to acute pitch in ordinary cases: the concluding instant of it being brought down to grave pitch, however, in the case of an independent circumflex which is immediately followed by another ascent of the voice to higher pitch (in acute or independent circumflex).

This last case, of an independent circumflex followed by acute or circumflex, receives peculiar written treatment. In the Rig-Veda method, a figure 1 or 3 is set after the circumflexed vowel, according as it is short or long, and the signs of accent are thus applied:

* Introduced by Böhtlingh, and much in the Petersburg lexicon and elsewhere.

घटस्वर्स: aper à Inták from apeu anták;

गयाउवनि : rāyo3 'vánih from rāyo avánih.

The other methods, more or less akin with this, need not be given.

In the scholastic utterance of such a syllable is made a peculiar quaver or roulade of the voice, which is called kampa or vikampana.

c. Pāņini gives the ambiguous name of *ekaçruti* ('monotone') to the *pracita* syllables, and says nothing of the uplifting of the circumflex to a higher plane: he teaches, however, a depression below the grave pitch for the marked grave syllable before acute or circumflex, calling it sannatara (otherwise anudātitatara).

91. The system of accentuation as marked in the Vedic texts has assumed in the traditional recitation of the Brahmanic schools a peculiar and artificial form, in which the designated syllables, grave and circumflex (equally the enclitic and the independent circumflex), have acquired a conspicuous value, while the undesignated, the acute, has sunk into insignificance^{*}.

92. The Sanskrit accent taught in the native grammars and represented by the accentuated texts is essentially a system of word-accent only. No general attempt is made (any more than in the Greek system) to define or mark a sentence-accent, the effect of the emphasis and modulation of the sentence in modifying the independent accent of individual words. The only approach to it is seen in the treatment of vocatives and personal verb-forms.

A vocative is usually without accent except at the beginning of a sentence: for further details, see the chapter on Declension.

A personal verb-form is usually accentless in an independent clause, except when standing at the beginning of the clause: for further details, see the chapter on Conjugation.

93. Certain other words also are, usually or always, without accent.

a. The particles ca, $v\bar{a}$, u, sma, iva, cid, svid, ha, are always without accent.

b. The same is true of certain pronouns and pronominal stems: mā, me, nāu, nas, tvā, te, vām, vas, ena-, tva-.

c. The cases of the pronominal stem a are sometimes accented and sometimes accentless.

An accentless word is not allowed to stand at the beginning of a sentence: also not of a $p\bar{a}da$ or primary division of a verse; a $p\bar{a}da$ is, in all matters relating to accentuation, treated like an independent sentence.

^{*} Hang, Wedischer Accent, in Abh. d. Bayr. Akad., vol. XIII, 1874.

94. Some words have more than a single accented syllable. Such are:

a. Dual collective compounds: as indrāvaruņāu.

b. A few other compounds, in which each member irregularly retains its own accent: as tânûnâpāt, vânaspáti, bihaspáti. In a rare case or two, also their further compounds, as bihaspátipraņutta.

c. Infinitive datives in tavaf: as étavaf.

d. A word naturally barytone, but having its final syllable protracted: see above, 78.

e. The particle vává (in the Brähmanas).

95. On the place of the accented syllable in a Sanskrit word there is no restriction whatever depending upon either the number or the quantity of the preceding or following syllables. The accent rests where the rules of inflection or derivation or composition place it, without regard to any thing else.

Thus, indre, agnāu, indreņa, agninā, agnīnām, bāhicyuta, anapacyuta, parjanyajinvita, abhimātisāha, anabhimlātavarņa, abhiçasticātana, hiraņyavāçīmattama.

96. Since the accent is marked only in the older literature, and the statements of the grammarians, with the deduced rules of accentuation, are far from being sufficient to settle all cases, the place of the stress of voice for a considerable part of the vocabulary is undetermined. Hence it is a general habit with European scholars to pronounce Sanskrit words according to the rules of the Latin accent.

97. In this work, the accent of each word and form will in general be marked, so far as there is authority determining its place and character. Where specific words and forms are quoted, they will only be so far accentuated as they are found with accent in accentuated texts.

CHAPTER III.

RULES OF EUPHONIC COMBINATION.

Introductory.

98. THE individual elements composing a language as actually used are its words. These are in part uninflected vocables (indeclinables, particles); in the main, they are inflected forms.

99. The inflected forms are analysable into inflective endings, of declension or of conjugation, and inflected stems to which those endings are added.

100. The inflected stems, again, are for the most part as are also in part the uninflected words — analysable into derivative endings or suffixes, and roots, to which, either directly or through more primary stems, those endings are added.

But, not a few stems and particles are irreducible to roots; and, on the other hand, roots are often used directly as inflected stems, in declension as well as in conjugation.

101. The roots are, in the condition of the language as it lies before us, the ultimate attainable elements; to a great extent not actually ultimate, but, where otherwise, the result of processes of development too irregular and obscure to be made the subject of treatment in a grammar.

102. The formative processes by which both inflectional forms and derivative stems are made, by the addition of endings to bases and to roots, are more regular and transparent in Sanskrit than in any other Indo-European language, and the grammatical analysis of words into their component elements is correspondingly complete. Hence it became the method of the native grammarians, and has continued to be that of their European successors, to teach the language by presenting the endings and stems and roots in their analysed forms, and laying down the ways in which these are to be combined together to make words. And hence a statement of the euphonic rules which govern the combination of elements occupies in Sanskrit grammar a more prominent and important place than in other grammars.

103. Moreover, the formation of compound words, by the putting together of two or more stems, is a process of very exceptional frequency in Sanskrit; and this kind of combination also has its own euphonic rules. And once more, in the form

Whitney, Grammar.

in which the language is handed down to us by the literature, the words composing a sentence or paragraph are adapted to and combined with each other by nearly the same rules which govern the making of compounds, so that it is impossible to take apart and understand the simplest sentence in Sanskrit without understanding those rules. Hence also a greatly added degree of practical importance belonging to the subject of euphonic combination.

This euphonic interdependence of the words of a sentence, which is unknown to any other language in anything like the same degree, is shown to be at least in considerable measure artificial, implying an erection into necessary and invariable rules of what in the living language were only optional practices, by the evidence of the older dialect of the Vedas and the younger Prakritic dialects, in toth of which these rules (especially as regards hiatus: 113) are very often violated.

104. We have, therefore, in the first place to consider the euphonic principles and laws which govern the combination of the elements of words (and the elements of the sentence); and then afterward to take up the subject of inflection, under the two heads of declension and conjugation; to which will succeed some account of the classes of uninflected words.

105. The formation of conjugational stems (tense and mode-stems, etc.) will be taught, as is usual, in connection with the processes of conjugational inflection; that of uninflected words, in connection with the various classes of those words. But the general subject of derivation, or the formation of declinable stems, will be taken up by itself later for a brief presentation; and it will be followed by an account of the formation of compound stems.

Although, namely, the general plan of this series of grammars excludes the subject of derivation, yet, because of the comparative simplicity and regularity of the principal processes of derivation in Sanskrit, and the importance to the student of accustoming himself from the beginning to trace those processes, in connection with the analysis of derived forms, back to the root, an exception will be made in regard to the subject in the present work.

106. We assume, then, for the purposes of the present chapter, the existence of the material of the language in a grammatically analysed condition, in the form of roots. stems, and endings.

107. What is to be taken as the proper form of a root or stem is not in all cases clear. Very many of both classes show in a part of their derivatives a stronger and in a part a weaker form (260). This is, in most cases, the only difficulty affecting

INTRODUCTORY.

stems — whether, for example, we shall speak of derivatives in *mat* or in *mant*, of comparatives in *yas* or in *yāns*, of a perfect participle in *vat* or in *vāns* or in *us*. The Hindu grammarians usually give the weaker form as the normal one, and derive the other from it by a strengthening change; some European authorities adopt the one form and some the other: the question is an unessential one, giving rise to no practical difficulty.

108. As regards the roots, the difficulty is greater, partly because complicated with other questions, arising from practices of the Hindu grammarians, which have been more or less widely followed by their European successors. Thus:

a. More than half of the whole number of roots given by the Hindu authorities (which are over 2000) have never been found actually used in the literature; and although some of these may yet come to light, or may have existed without finding their way into any of the preserved literary documents, it is certain that most are fictitions, made in part for the explanation of words claimed to be their derivatives, and in part for other and perhaps unexplainable reasons. Of the roots unauthenticated by traceable nse no account will be made in this grammar — or, if at all considered, they will be carefully distinguished from the authenticated.

b. Those roots of which the initial n and s are regularly converted to n and s after certain prefixes are by the Hindu grammarians given as beginning with n and s: no European authority follows this example.

c. A number of roots ending in \bar{a} which is irregularly treated in the inflection of the present-system are written in the Hindu lists with diphthongs — ϵ or $\bar{a}i$ or o_i and so, after this example, by many Western scholars. Here they will be regarded as \bar{a} -roots: compare below, **251**. The o of such roots, especially, is purely arbitrary; no forms made from the root justify it.

d. The roots showing interchangeably r, ar, and ir and $\bar{i}r$ or ur and $\bar{u}r$ forms are written by the Hindus with r, or with \bar{r} , or with both. Here also the \bar{r} is arbitrary and indefensible. As between r and ar, even the latest European authorities are at variance, and it may be left to further research to settle whether the one or the other is alone worthy to be accepted. Here (mainly as a matter of convenience: compare below, **237**) the r-forms will be used.

e. In the other cases of roots showing a stronger and a weaker form, choice is in great measure a matter of minor consequence — unless further research and the settlement of pending phonetic questions shall show that the one or the other is decidedly the truer and more original. From the point of view of the Sanskrit alone, the question is often impossible to determine.

f. The Hindus classify as simple roots a number of derived stems: reduplicated ones, as $d\bar{u}dh\bar{u}$, $j\bar{u}g\bar{r}$, $daridr\bar{u}$; present-stems, as $\bar{u}r\eta u$; and denominative stems, as $avadh\bar{v}r$, $kum\bar{u}r$, $sabh\bar{u}j$, mantr, $s\bar{u}ntv$, arth, and the like. These are in European works generally reduced to their true value.

g. But it is impossible to draw any definite line between these cases

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III. EUPHONIC COMBINATION.

and others in which root-forms evidently of secondary origin have attained a degree of independent value in the language which almost or quite entities them to rank as individual roots. Even the weak and strong forms of the same root - as rad and rand, cit and cint, mak and mank - may have such a difference of use that they count as two; or a difference of inflection combined with a difference of meaning in a root has the same effect - as in vy vynoti and vy vynite, in hū jahāti and hā jikite; or an evident presentstem becomes a separate root — as jinv and pinv. Not a few roots occur in more or less clearly related groups, the members of which are of various degrees of independence. Thus, a considerable class of roots show an added \bar{a} ; and such as mnū and dhmū are reckoned only as side-forms of mon and dham; while trā, prā, pyā, psā, and others, presumably made in the same manner, figure as separate from their probable originals. Many final consonants of roots have the value of "root-determinatives", or elements of obscure or unknown origin added to simpler forms. A class of derivative roots show signs of reduplication, as cake, jake, dudk; or of a desiderative development, as bhaks and bhiks, crus, aks, naks. Yet another class seem to contain a preposition fused with a root, as vyac, up, and the later ujk and rwas.

With most of such cases it is not the part of a Sanskrit grammar, but rather of a general Indo-European comparative grammar, to deal according to their historical character. We must be content to accept as roots what elements seem to have on the whole that value in the existing condition of the language; with due recognition of authorized differences of opinion on many points, as well as of the fact that further knowledge will set many things now doubtful in a clearer light.

Principles of Euphonic Combination.

109. The rules of combination are in some respects different, according as they apply

s. to the internal make-up of a word, by the addition of derivative and inflectional endings to roots and stems;

b. to the more external putting together of stems to make compound stems, and the yet looser and more accidental collocation of words in the sentence.

Hence they are usually divided into rules of internal combination (or *sandhi*, putting together), and rules of external combination.

110. In both classes of cases, however, the general principles of combination are the same — and likewise, to a great extent, the specific rules. The differences depend in part on the occurrence or non-occurrence of certain combinations in the one class or the other; in part, on the difference of treatment of the same sound as final of a root or of an ending. the former being much more persistent than the latter; in part. on the occurrence in external combination of certain changes which are apparently phonetic but really historical: and, most frequent and conspicuous of all, on the fact that (157) vowels and semivowels and nasals exercise a sonantizing influence in external combination, but not in internal. Hence, to avoid unnecessary repetition as well as the separation of what really belongs together, the rules for both kinds of combination will be given below in connection with one another.

111. Moreover, before case-endings beginning with bh and s (namely, bhis, bhyas, bhyas, bhyas, su), the treatment of the finals of stems is in general the same as in the combinations of words (pada) with one another — whence those endings are sometimes called *pada*-endings, and the cases they form are known as *pada*-cases. And with some of the suffixes of derivation the same is the case.

The importance of this distinction is somewhat exaggerated by the ordinary statement of it. In fact, dh is the only sonant mute initial of an ending occurring in conjugation, as bh in declension; and the difference of their treatment is in part owing to the one coming into collision usually with the final of a root and the other of an ending, and in part to the fact that dh, as a dental, is more assimilable to palatals and linguals than bh. A more marked and problematic distinction is made between su and the verbal endings si, sva, etc., especially after palatal sounds and s.

112. The leading rules of internal combination are those which are of highest and most immediate importance to a beginner in the language, since his first task is to master the principal paradigms of inflection; the rules of external combination may better be left untouched until he comes to dealing with words in sentences, or to translating. Then, however, they are indispensable, since the proper form of the words that compose the sentence is not to be determined without them.

The general principles of combination underlying the euphonic rules, and determining their classification. may be stated as follows:

113. Hiatus. A hiatus is avoided.

There are but two or three words in the language which in their accepted written form exhibit successive vowels forming different syllables: they are *titaü*, 'sieve' (perhaps for *titasu*, BR. and *práüga*, 'wagon-pole' (for *prayuga*?): and, in RV., *suūti*. For the not infrequent instances of composition and sentence combination where the recent loss of s or y or v leaves a permanent hiatus, see below, 132ff., 175 b, 177. It has been already noticed that in the Veda, as the metrical form of the hymns plainly shows, there is no avoidance of hiatus, either as between the stem-finals and endings of words, between the members of compounds, or between the words composing a sentence. In cases innumerable, a y and v (especially after two consonants, or a long vowel and consonant) are to be read as *i* and *u*. But also a long vowel is sometimes to be resolved into two syllables — oftenest, \bar{a} into *a-a*: this resolution is sometimes historical, but ordinarily purely metrical. For details, see below. It is with regard to the histus that the rules of the grammatically regulated classical Sanskrit are most demonstrably and conspicuously different from the more living usages of the sacred dialect.

114. Deaspiration. An aspirate mute is liable to lose its aspiration, being allowed to stand unchanged only before a vowel or semivowel or nasal.

115. Assimilation. The great body of euphonic changes in Sanskrit, as elsewhere, falls under the general head of assimilation — which takes place both between sounds which are so nearly alike that the difference between them is too insignificant to be worth preserving, and between those which are so diverse as to be practically incompatible.

116. In part, assimilation involves the conversion of one sound to another of the same series, without change of articulating position; in part, it involves a change of position, or transfer to another series.

117. Of changes within the series, the most frequent and important occur in the adaptation of surd and sonant sounds to one another; but the nasals and l have also in certain cases their special assimilative influence. Thus:

a. In the two classes of non-nasal mutes and spirants, surd and sonant are wholly incompatible; no surd of either class can either precede or follow a sonant of either.

A mute, surd or sonant, is assimilated by being changed to its correspondent of the other kind; of the spirants, the surd s is the only one having a sonant correspondent, namely τ , to which it is convertible in external combination.

b. The nasals are more freely combinable: a nasal may either precede or follow a mute of either kind, or the sonant spirant k; it may also follow a surd spirant i ever precedes a sibilant in the interior of a word (it is changed instead to anusvāra); and in external combination their concurrence is usually avoided by insertion of a surd mute.

c. A semivowel has still less sonantizing influence; and a vowel least of all^{*}: both are freely preceded and followed by sounds of every other class, in the interior of a word.

Before a sibilant, however, is found, of the semivowels, only r and very rarely l. Moreover, in external combination, r is often changed to its surd correspondent s.

But

d. In composition and sentence-collocation, initial vowels and semivowels and nasals also require the preceding final to be sonant. And

e. Before a nasal and l, the assimilative process is sometimes carried further, by the conversion of a final mute to a nasal or l respectively.

118. Of conversions involving a change of articulate position, the most important are those of dental sounds to lingual, and, less often, to palatal. Thus:

a. The dental s and n are very frequently converted to s and n by the assimilating influence of contiguous or neighboring lingual sounds: the s, even by sounds — namely, i and u-vowels and k — which have themselves no lingual character.

b. A non-nasal dental mute is (with a few exceptions in external combination) made lingual when it comes into collision with a lingual sound.

c. The dental mutes and sibilant are made palatal by a contiguous palatal. But also:

d. A m (not radical) is assimilated to a following consonant, of whatever kind.

119. The euphonic combinations of the palatal mutes, the palatal sibilant, and the aspiration, as being sounds derived by phonetic alteration from more original gutturals (42 ff.), are made peculiar and complicated by two circumstances: their reversion to a guttural form (or the appearance of the unaltered guttural instead of them); and the different treatment of j and λ according as they represent one or another degree of alteration — the one tending, like c, more to the guttural reversion, the other showing. like c, a more sibilant and lingual character.

120. The lingual sibilant s, also of derivative character (from dental s, shows as radical final a peculiar and problematic mode of combination.

121. Extension and abbreviation of consonant-groups. The native grammarians allow or require certain extensions, by duplication or insertion, of groups of consonants. And, on the other hand, abbreviation of cer-

^{*} In conformity with general phonetic law: see Sievers. Lautphysiologie, p. 140.

tain other groups is allowed, and found often practised in the manuscripts.

122. Permitted Finals. The permitted occurrence of consonants at the end of a word is quite narrowly restricted. In general, only one consonant is allowed after the last vowel; and that must be neither the aspiration, nor a sibilant, nor a semivowel (save rarely $\overline{e_l}$), nor an aspirate mute, nor a sonant mute if not nasal, nor a palatal.

123. Increment and Decrement. Besides these more or less regular changes accompanying the combination of the parts that make up words, there is another class of a somewhat different character, not consisting in the mutual adaptations of the parts, but in strengthening or weakening changes of the parts themselves.

124. It is impossible to carry through a perfectly systematic arrangement of the detailed rules of euphonic combination, because the different varieties of euphonic change more or less overlap and intersect one another. The order followed below will be as follows:

1. Rules of vowel combination, for the avoidance of hiatus.

2. Rules as to permitted finals (since these underlie the farther treatment of final consonants in external combination).

3. Rules for loss of aspiration of an aspirate mute.

4. Rules of surd and sonant assimilation, including those for final s and r.

5. Rules for the conversion of dental sounds to lingual and palatal.

6. Rules for the changes of final nasals, including those in which a former final following the nasal reappears in combination.

7. Rules regarding the special changes of the derivative sounds — the palatal mutes and sibilant, the aspiration, and the lingual sibilant.

8. Rules as to extension and abbreviation of consonant groups.

9. Rules for strengthening and weakening processes.

Everywhere, rules for more sporadic and less classifiable cases will be given in the most practically convenient connection; and the Index will render what help is needed toward finding them.

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Rules of Vowel Combination.

125. The concurrence of two vowels, or of vowel and diphthong, without intervening consonant. is forbidden by the euphony of the later or classical language. It is avoided, according to the circumstances of the case, either by fusion of the two concurrent sounds into one, by the reduction of one of them to a semivowel, or by development of a semivowel between them.

The texts of the older or Vedic dialect are written according to the emphonic rules of the later, although in them (as was pointed out above. 113) the hiatus is really of very frequent occurrence. Hence they are not to be read as written, but with almost constant reversal of the processes of vowel combination which they have artificially undergone.

The rules of vowel combination, as regards both the resulting sound and its accent, are nearly the same in internal and in external *sandhi*.

126. Two similar simple vowels. short or long. coalesce and form the corresponding long vowel: thus. two *a*-vowels (either or both of them short or long form $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ $\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$; two *i*-vowels, $\overline{\mathfrak{f}}$; two *u*-vowels, $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$, $\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$; and theoretically, two *r*-vowels form $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ \overline{r} , but it is questionable whether the case ever practically occurs. Examples are:

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म चाप्रज्ञ: sa cā 'prajaḥ (ca + aprajaḥ);
म्रतीव atī 'va (ati + iva ;
मूलाम् sūktam (su-uktam ;
राजामीत् rājā "sīt (rājā + ūsīt :
म्रापीश्वर: adhīçvaraḥ (adhi-īçvaraḥ).
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As the above examples indicate, it will be the practice everywhere in this work, in transliteration but not in the *devanāgarī* text, to separate independent words; and if an initial vowel of a following word has coalesced with a final of the preceding, this will be indicated by an apostrophe stagle if the initial vowel be the shorter, double if it be the longer, of the two different initials which in every case of combination yield the same result.

127. An *a*-vowel combines with a following *i*-vowel to with an *u*-vowel, to $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ o; with $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ r. to $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ or; with

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mer rando or a is with y e or y ai, to y ai; with
 i a. or a in. Examples are:
 i a. or a in. Examples are:
 i a. or a in. Examples are:
 i a. or a in. interval
 i a. or a in. interval
 i a. or a in. or and in. or an interval
 i a. or a in. or an or a

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"Then deverses were the more i do are to be combined, the first substant u. " more, a more trad, such the result is indre " 'hi (not indrai " a. Puts more a

138 As weards are accent of these vowel combinations, it is to be malered dat. S. as a matter of course, the union of acute with acute terms acute, and may of grave with grave yields grave : has a community with accumites cannot occur; b. a circumflex with ollowing soure yields source, the final grave element of the corner with research to scute pitch; a grave with following acute toos ac same as no upward slide of the voice on a syllable is acknew experience in the language . but, c. when the former of the uses doments is source and the latter grave, we might expect the resulting soliable to be in general circumflex, to represent what he regulal tones. Panini in fact allows this accent in very such case and in a single accentuated Brähmana text (CB., in circumfex is regularly written. But the language shows, on the whole an indisposition to allow the circumflex to rest on case long vowel or diphthong as its sole basis, and the acute craws a suffered to raise the other to its own level of pitch, making in while soliable acute. The only exception to this, is used in the combination of i and i, which bethis in the true in the Taittiriva texts · 1441 > the same of the second rule, while w and w. in-Leve mate . Bus might trotte so-received.

. M. the appreciative and H r. before a second on a supplement, are regularly converted and into its sum preventing seminowel. U y or Z r or T . Manual are:

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इत्याक् ity āha iti + āha); मधिव madhv iva (madhu + iva); डुक्त्रिये duhitrarthe (duhitr-arthe); ड्यस्य stry asya (strī + asya); वधे vadhvāi (vadhū-āi).

But in internal combination (never in external) the i and u-vowels are not seldom changed instead to iy and uv — and this especially in monosyllables, or after two consonants, where otherwise a group of consonants difficult of pronunciation would be the result. The cases will be noticed below, in explaining inflected forms.

A radical *i*-vowel is converted into y even before *i* in perfect tense-inflection: so ninyima (nini + ima).

130. As regards the accent — here, as in the preceding case (128), the only combination requiring notice is that of an acute i or *u*-vowel with a following grave: the result is circumflex; and such cases of circumflex are many times more frequent than any and all others. Examples are:

स्विष्ट svista (sú-ista); तन्वेम् tanvàs (tanú-as).

Of a similar combination of acute r' with following grave, only a single case has been noted in accented texts: namely, vijñātr ètát (ÇB. xiv. 6. 8¹¹): the accentuation is in accordance with the rules for i and u.

131. Of a diphthong, the final *i* or *u*-element is changed to its corresponding semivowel, \underline{v} y or \underline{q} v, before any vowel or diphthong: thus, \overline{v} e (really ai: 28) becomes $\underline{x}\underline{q}$ ay, and $\underline{x}\overline{l}$ o (that is, au) becomes $\underline{x}\underline{q}$ av; \overline{v} $\overline{a}i$ becomes $\underline{x}\underline{u}$, $\overline{a}y$, and $\underline{x}\overline{l}$ $\overline{a}u$ becomes $\underline{x}\underline{a}$ $\overline{a}v$.

No change of accent, of course. occurs here; each original syllable retains its syllabic identity, and hence also its own tone.

Examples can be given only for internal combination, since in external combination there are further changes: see the next paragraph. Thus,

नय naya (ne-a); नाय nāya (nāi-a);

भव bhava (bho-a); भाव bhāva (bhāu-a).

132. In external combination, we have the important additional rule that the semivowel resulting from the conversion of the final element of a diphthong is in general

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dropped; and the resulting hiatus is left without further change.

133. That is to say, a final $\overline{\zeta} e$ (by far the most frequent case) becomes simply $\overline{a} a$ before an initial vowel (except $\overline{a} a$: see 135, below), and both then remain unchanged; and a final $\overline{\zeta} \overline{a}i$, in like manner. becomes (everywhere) \overline{a} . Thus,

त घागता: ta ūgatāķ (te + ūgatāķ); नगर इक् nagara iha (nagare + iha): तस्मा घट्टात् tasmā adadāt (tasmāi + adadāt); स्त्रिया उक्तम् striyā uktam (striyāi + uktam).

The later grammarians allow the y in such combinations to be either retained or dropped; but the uniform practice of the MSS., of every age, in accordance with the strict requirement of the Vedic grammars (Prātiçākhyas), is to omit the semivowel and leave the hiatus.

The persistence of the hiatus caused by this omission is a plain indication of the comparatively recent loss of the intervening consonantal sound. Instances of the combination of the remaining final and initial are not unknown, but they are of sporadically rare occurrence.

134. The diphthong o (except as phonetic alteration of final as: see 175a) is an unusual final, appearing only in the stem go (356), in the voc. sing. of *u*-stems, in words of which the final a is combined with the particle u, as *atho*, and in a few interjections. In the last two classes it is uncombinable (below, 138); the vocatives sometimes retain the v and sometimes lose it (the practices of different texts are too different to be briefly stated); go (in composition only) does not lose its final element, but remains gav or go. A final as becomes a, with following hiatus, before any vowel save a (for which, see the next paragraph).

The a v of BII av from all au is usually retained: thus.

niaa tav eva (tau + eva);

उभाविन्द्रामी ubhāv indrāgnī (ubhāu + indrāgnī).

In some texts, however, it is lost before an u-vowel, the \bar{a} alone remaining, with histus; in at least one text (Kāthaka), it is dropped before every vowel. The later grammarians allow it to be either retained or dropped.

135. After final ∇e or $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ o, an initial $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ a disappears.

The resulting accent is as if the a were not dropped, but rather absorbed into the preceding diphthong, having its tone

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duly represented in the combination. If, namely, the e or o is grave or circumflex and the a acute, the former becomes acute; if the e or o is acute and the a grave, the former becomes circumflex, as usually in the fusion of an acute and a grave element. If both are acute or both grave, no change, of course, is seen in the result. Examples are:

ते sब्रुवन् tè 'bruvan (té abruvan); मो sब्रवीत sò 'bravīt (sáḥ abravīt); दिंमितव्यो sग्नि: hinsitavyò 'gniḥ (hinsitavyàḥ agniħ); यदिन्द्रो sब्रवीत् yád indró 'bravīt (yád indraḥ ábravīt); यद्गाजन्यो sब्रवीत् yád rājanyó 'bravīt (yád rājanyàḥ ábravīt).

As to the use of the *avagraha* sign in the case of such an elision, see above. 16. In transliteration, the reversed apostrophe, or rough breathing, will be used in this work to represent it.

This elision or absorption of initial a after final e or o, which in the later language is the invariable rule, is in the Veda only an occasional occurrence; and there is no close accordance with regard to it between the written and the spoken form of the Vedic texts. In the Atharvan, for example, the a is omitted in writing in about one third of the cases, but is to be omitted in reading in less than one fifth (including a number in which the written text preserves it. See APr. iii. 54, note.

To the rules of vowel combination, as above stated, there are certain exceptions. Some of the more isolated of these will be noticed where they come up in the processes of inflection etc.: a few require mention here.

136. In internal combination:

8. The augment *a* makes with the initial vowel of a root the combinations $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}u$, $\bar{a}r$ (*vrddhi*-vowels), instead of *e*, *o*, *ar* (*guna*-vowels), as required by 127.

b. The final o of a strengthened stem (**238**b) becomes av before the suffix ya originally ia;

c. The final vowel of a stem is often dropped when a secondary suffix is added.

For the weakening and loss of radical vowels, and for certain insertions, see below, 249 ff., 257-8.

137. In external combination :

a. The final a or \bar{a} of a preposition, with initial r of a root, makes $\bar{a}r$ instead of ar.

b. The final a of a preposition before roots beginning with e or o is usually omitted.

c. A final a in composition may be cut off before otu and ostha.

d. The form *uh* from y vah sometimes makes the heavier (vyddhi)

diphthongal combination with a preceding a: thus, prūuha. prūudha. aksāuhiņī (from pra-ūha etc.).

138. Certain final vowels, moreover, are uncombinable (pragrhya), or maintain themselves unchanged before any following vowel. Thus.

a. The vowels $\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$ and e as dual endings, both of declensional and of conjugational forms. Thus, bandhū $\bar{a}s\bar{a}te$ im $\bar{a}u$; gir $\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}rohatam$.

b. The pronoun ami nom. pl.): and the Vedic pronominal forms asmé, yuşmé, tvé.

c. A final o made by combination of a final a-vowel with the particle u: thus, atho, mo, no.

d. A final \overline{i} or \overline{u} of a Vedic locative case.

e. A protracted final vowel (78).

f. The final, or only, vowel of an interjection, as abo, he, \bar{a} . i, u.

Permitted Finals.

139. The sounds allowed to occur as finals in Sanskrit words, standing by themselves (not in euphonic combination with something following), are closely limited. and those which would etymologically come to occupy such a position are often variously altered, in general accordance with their treatment in other circumstances, or are sometimes omitted altogether.

The variety of consonants that would ever come at the end of either an inflected form or a derivative stem in the language is very small: namely, in forms, only t (or d_j , n, m, s; in derivative stems, only t, d, n, r, s (and, in a few rare words, j_j . But almost all consonants occur as finals of roots; and every root is liable to be found, alone or as last member of a compound, in the character of a declined stem.

140. All the vowel sounds, both simple and diphthongal, may be sounded at the end of a word.

But neither \overline{r} nor l ever actually occurs; and r is very rare only as neuter sing. of a stem in r or ar, or as final of such a stem in composition).

Thus, indra, çiváyā, ákāri, nadī, dātu, camū, janayitŕ, ágne, çiráyāi, ráyo, agnāú.

141. Of the non-nasal mutes, only the first in each series, the non-aspirate surd. is allowed; the others — surd

aspirate, and both sonants — whenever they would etymologically occur, are converted into this.

Thus, agnimát for agnimáth, suhŕt for suhŕd, virút for virúdh.

In a few roots, when their final sonant aspirate) thus loses its aspiration, the original sonant aspiration of the initial reappears: compare $\overline{a}h$, below, 147.

Thus, *dagh* becomes *dhak*, *budh* becomes *bhut*, and so on. The roots exhibiting this change are stated below, 155.

There was some question among the Hindu grammarians as to whether the final mute is to be estimated as of surd or of sonant quality; but the great weight of authority, and the invariable practice of the MSS., favor the surd.

142. The palatals, however, form here (as often elsewhere) an exception to the rules for the other mutes. No palatal is allowed as final. The च c reverts to its original च k: thus, चाक् vāk, ग्रेट्रोमुक् anhomuk. The \mathfrak{F} ch (extremely rare: perhaps only in the root प्र \mathfrak{F} prach) becomes $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$: thus, $\mathfrak{M}(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ prāt. The \mathfrak{F} j either reverts to its original guttural or becomes $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$, in accordance with its treatment in other combinations(219): thus, भिषक् bhisák, virāt. The \mathfrak{F} jh does not occur, but is by the native grammarians declared convertible to $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$.

143. Of the nasals, the $\underline{\neg}$ *m* and $\underline{\neg}$ *n* are extremely common, especially the former ($\underline{\neg}$ *m* and $\underline{\neg}$ *n* are of all final consonants the most frequent); the $\underline{\neg}$ *n* is allowed, but is quite rare; $\underline{\bigtriangledown}$ \overline{n} is found (remaining after the loss of a following $\underline{\neg}$ *k*) in a very small number of words; $\underline{\Huge{\neg}}$ *n* never occurs.

But the final m of a root is changed to n (compare 212, below): thus, *ágan* from *gam*, *ánān* from *nam*.

144. Of the semivowels, the \overline{r} *l* alone is an admitted final, and it is very rare. The $\overline{\chi}$ *r* is (like its nearest surd correspondent, $\overline{\eta}$ *s*: 145) changed as final to *visarga*. Of $\overline{\eta}$ *y* and $\overline{\eta}$ *v* there is no occurrence.

145. Of the sibilants. none may stand unaltered at the end of a word. The $\frac{1}{2}$ s (which of all final consonants

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would otherwise be the commonest is like \mathbf{T} r changed to a breathing, the meanys. The $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C}}$ either reverts to its original $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C}}$ is in some roots, is changed to $\mathbf{\xi}_{\mathcal{L}}$ (in accordance with its changes in inflection and derivation; see below, 218). The $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C}}$ is likewise changed to $\mathbf{\xi}_{\mathcal{L}}$.

The gamme of e to this of very rate occurrence: see below, 226.

Figs. Twitting its said by the grammarians to be changed to t: thus, shows from three but no example of the conversion appears to occur: see 1985.

In the and W cases where the ks has a quasi-radical character — namely make the makes, and insure from proparty — the conversion is to k. Also a count the matters are this aorist below we have adhāk, asrāk, arāk, ar con autorist see this aorist below we have adhāk, asrāk, arāk, ar con autorist see. Nat also sprāt, adhrāt, ayāt (for aprāks-t etc.). In the lass in two cases srāt i. e. srās, apparently for asrāks-s, from page woruge: referred by BR. to praise.

The mineral are send, is perhaps better to be regarded as sake, with to a summaria to a neurilary to the accepted rule.

147. The aspiration $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ \mathbf{A} is not allowed to maintain the it is in the $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ either reverts to its original quasaral form appearing as $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ \mathbf{A} or is changed to $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ \mathbf{f} both in accordance with its treatment in inflection; see beleve. **355.** And, also as in inflection, the original sonant appearance of a few roots given at 155 reappears when their such this becomes unaspirated. Where the $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ \mathbf{A} is from arguinal $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$:

the interval and substitute for an original when the interval and substitute for an original when the interval atter accurs as final only so far as when the company same show it to be substituted for H m.

the low make the number then, the usual finals, which we also revive of their frequency, are : h, H, m, J, n,

PERMITTED FINALS.

 $\overline{\eta}$ t, $\overline{\eta}$ k, $\overline{\eta}$ p, $\overline{\xi}$ t; those of only sporadic occurrence are \overline{s} \overline{n} , $\overline{\eta}$ l, $\overline{\eta}$ n; and, by permitted substitution, $= \dot{m}$.

150. In general, only one consonant, of whatever kind, is allowed to stand at the end of a word; if two or more would etymologically occur there, the last is dropped, and again the last, and so on, till only one remains.

Thus, tudants becomes tudant, and this tudan; udanc-s becomes udank, and this udanc; and achantst (s-aor., 3d sing., of V chand) is in like manner reduced to achanc.

But a non-nasal mute, if radical and not suffixal, is retained after r: thus, irk from $\bar{u}rj$, vdrk from γvrj , $dm\bar{u}rt$ from γmrj , subart from subard. The case is not a common one.

For relics of former double finals, preserved by the later language under the disguise of apparent euphonic combinations, see below, 207 ff.

151. Anomalous conversions of a final mute to one of another class are occasionally met with. Examples are:

a. Of final t to k, in a few words that have assumed a special value as particles: thus, $jy\delta k$, $t\bar{a}j\delta k$ (beside $t\bar{a}j\delta t$), $p_{1}^{2}thak$, fdhak; — but also now and then in a verbal form, as $s\bar{a}visak$ (AV. and VS. Kān.), avisyak (Pārask.); — and in the feminines in $kn\bar{i}$ (as $asikn\bar{i}$ beside asita). SV. has once $p_{1}^{2}ks\bar{u}$ for $p_{1}^{2}s\bar{u}$.

b. Of k or j to t, in an isolated example or two, as samy δt and $\delta s_{i} t$ (TS., K.).

c. In Täittirīya texts, of the final of anustúbh and tristúbh to a guttural: as, anustúk ca, tristúgbhis (Weber, Ind. St., xiii. 109 ff.).

d. Of a labial to a dental: in kakûd for and beside kakûbh; in samisfdbhis (TS.) from γ srp; and in adbhis, adbhyás, from ap or $\bar{a}p$ (chap. V). Excepting the first, these look like cases of dissimilation; yet examples of the combination bbh are not unknown in the older language: thus, kakubbhyām, tristubbhis, anustub bhi.

152. For all the processes of external combination — that is to say, in composition and sentence-collocation — a stemfinal or word-final is in general to be regarded as having, not its etymological form, but that given it by the rules as to permitted finals. From this, however, are to be excepted the s and r: the various transformations of these sounds have nothing to do with the visarga to which as finals before a pause they have come — doubtless at a comparatively recent period of phonetic history — to be reduced. Words will everywhere in this work be written with final s or r instead of h_i ; and the rules of combination will be stated as for the two more original sounds, and not for the visarga.

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Deaspiration.

153. An aspirate mute is changed to its corresponding non-aspirate before another non-nasal mute or before a sibilant; it stands unaltered only before a vowel or semivowel or nasal.

Such a case can only arise in internal combination, since the processes of external combination presuppose the reduction of the aspirate to a nonaspirate surd (152).

Practically, also, the rules as to changes of aspirates concern almost only the sonant aspirates, since the surd, being of later development and rarer occurrence, are hardly ever found in situations that call for their application.

154. Hence, if such a mute is to be doubled, it is doubled by prefixing its own corresponding non-aspirate.

But in the MSS., both Vedic and later, an aspirate mute is not seldom found written double — especially, if it be one of rare occurrence: for example (RV.), akhkhalī, jájhjhatī.

155. In a few roots, when a final sonant aspirate $(\underline{q}, \underline{h}, \underline{q}, \underline{h}, \underline{q}, bh;$ also \underline{a}, h , as representing an original \underline{q}, gh) thus loses its aspiration, the initial sonant consonant (\underline{n}, g) or \underline{c}, d or \underline{a}, b) becomes aspirate.

That is to say, the original initial aspirate of such roots is restored, when its presence does not interfere with the euphonic law, of comparatively recent origin, which (in Sanskrit as in Greek) forbids a root to both begin and end with an aspirate.

The roots which show this peculiar change are:

in gh — dagh;

in h (for original gh) — dah, dih, duh, druh, drih, guh; and grah (in the later desiderative jighrksa);

in dh — bandh, būdh, budh;

in bh - dabh (but only in the later desiderative *dhipsa*, for which the older language has *dipsa*).

The same change appears when the law as to finals causes the loss of the aspiration at the end of the root: see above, 141.

But from dah, duh, and guh are found in the Veda also forms without the restored initial aspirate: thus, daks it: aduksat, duduksa etc.; juguksa.

The same analogy is followed by dadh, the abbreviated substitute of the present-stem dadh \bar{a} , from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$, in some of the forms of conjugation; thus, dhatthas from dadh + thas, adhatta from adadh + ta, etc.

Assimilation.

Surd and Sonant Assimilation.

156. Under this head, there is especially one very marked and important difference between the internal combinations of a root or stem with suffixes and endings, and the external combinations of stem with stem in composition and of word with word in sentence-making: namely,

157. In internal combination, the initial vowel or semivowel or nasal of an ending of derivation or inflection exercises no altering influence upon a final consonant of the root or stem to which it is added.

To this rule there are a few exceptions only: thus, a reverted palatal sometimes before a nasal (216, 4, 5); d before the participle-suffix na (161); a final consonant before maya (161).

In external combination, on the other hand, an initial sonant of whatever class, even a vowel or semivowel or nasal, requires the conversion of a final surd to sonant.

It has been pointed out above (152) that in the rules of external combination only admitted finals, along with s and τ , need be taken account of, all others being regarded as reduced to these before combining with initials.

158. Final vowels, nasals, and eq l are nowhere liable to change in the processes of surd and sonant assimilation.

The r, however, has a corresponding surd in s, to which it is changed in external combination under circumstances that favor a surd utterance.

159. With the exceptions above stated, the collision of surd and sonant sounds is avoided in combinations and, regularly and usually, by assimilating the final to the following initial.

Thus, in internal combination: átsi, átti, atthás, attá (\sqrt{ad} + si etc.); çagdhi, çagdhvám (\sqrt{cak} + dhi etc.); — in external combination, ábhūd ayám, jyóg jīva, sád açītáyah, tristúb ápi; diggaja, sadahá, brhádbhānu, abjá.

160. If, however, the final sonant aspirate of a root is followed by $\overline{\eta} t$ or $\overline{\eta} t$ of an ending, the assimilation is in

the other direction: the combination is made sonant, and the aspiration of the final (lost according to 153, above) is transferred to the initial of the ending.

Thus, gh with t or th becomes gdh; dh with the same becomes ddh, as $baddhá (\gamma badh + ta)$, runddhás (γ rundh + thas or tas); bh with the same becomes bdh, as $labdhá (\gamma labh + ta)$, $labdhvá (\gamma labh + tvā)$.

Moreover, h, as representing original gh, is treated in the same manner: thus, dugdhá, dogdhim from duh — and compare rūdhá and līdhá from ruh and lik etc., 222.

In this combination, as the sonant aspiration is not lost but transferred, the restoration of the initial aspiration (155) does not take place.

In dadh from $\gamma dh\bar{a}$ (155, end), the more normal method is followed; the dk is made surd, and the initial aspirated: thus, dhatthas, dhattas. And RV. has dhaktam instead of dagdham from $\gamma dagh$.

161. Before a nasal in external combination, a final mute may be simply made sonant, or it may be still further assimilated, being changed to the nasal of its own class.

Thus, either tád námas or tán námas, rắg me or vấn me, bád mahán or bán mahán, tristúb nūnám or tristúm nūnám.

In practice, the conversion into a nasal is almost invariably made in the MSS., as, indeed, it is by the Prātiçākhyas required and not permitted merely. Even by the general grammarians it is required in the compound sameavati, and before $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, and the suffix maya (really a noun in composition): thus, $v\bar{a}\bar{n}m\dot{a}ya$, $mram\dot{a}ya$.

Even in internal combination, final d of a root becomes n before the participle-suffix na: thus, bhinná, sanná, tunná.

162. Before l, a final t is not merely made sonant, but fully assimilated, becoming l: thus, tál labhate, úlluptam.

163. Before \overline{q} h (the case occurs only in external combination), a final mute is made sonant; and then the h may either remain unchanged or be converted into the sonant aspirate corresponding with the former: thus, either \overline{nfg}_{k} tiad hi or \overline{nfg} tiad dhi.

In practice, the latter method is almost invariably followed; and the grammarians of the Prātiçākhya period are nearly unanimous in requiring it. The phonetic difference between the two is very slight.

Examples are: $v \bar{a} g$ ghutáh, sáddhot \bar{a} (sat + hot \bar{a}), taddhita (tat + hita), anustúb bhí. Combinations of final s and r.

164. The euphonic changes of $\exists s$ and $\exists r$ may best be considered together, because of the practical relation of the two sounds, in composition and sentence-collocation, as corresponding surd and sonant: in a host of cases $\exists s$ becomes $\exists r$ in situations requiring or favoring the occurrence of a sonant; and, less often, $\exists r$ becomes $\exists s$ where a surd is required.

In internal combination, the two are far less exchangeable with one another: and this class of cases may best be taken up first.

165. Final r radical or quasi-radical (that is, not belonging to an ending of derivation) remains unchanged before both surd and sonant sounds, and even before su in declension: thus, *pi*-parsi, caturthá, catúrsu, pūrsú.

166. Final radical s remains before a surd in general, and usually before s, as in cassi, cassva, acissu (but the last is also written $\bar{a}_{c}ihsu$: 172): it is however dropped in asi (for assi: $\sqrt{as + si}$). Before a sonant (that is, bh) in declension, it is treated as in external combination: thus, $\bar{a}_{c}irbhis$. Before a sonant (that is, dh) in conjugation, it is dropped: thus, $c\bar{a}dhi$, $\bar{a}dhvám$ (but cases like the latter may be by abbreviation [232] for $\bar{a}ddhvam$): in edhi (as + dhi), the preceding vowel is anomalously altered.

167. In a very few cases, final radical s before s is changed to t (perhaps by dissimilation): they are, from \sqrt{vas} , the future valoydimi and aorist $\delta v \bar{u} tsam$; from $\sqrt{g} has$, the desiderative stem *jighatsa*.

168. According to the grammarians, the final s of certain other roots, used as noun-stems, becomes t at the end of the word, and before bh and su: thus, dhvat, dhvadbhis, sradbhyas, sratsu. But genuine examples of such change do not appear to have been met with in use.

Sporadic cases of a like conversion are found in the Veda: namely, $m\bar{a}dbhfs$ and $m\bar{a}dbhyas$ from $m\dot{a}s$; $us\dot{a}dbhis$ from $us\dot{a}s$; $sv\dot{a}tavadbhyas$ from $sv\dot{a}tavas$; $sv\dot{a}vadbhis$ etc. (not found in use), from $sv\dot{a}vas$. But the reality of the conversion here is open to grave doubt; it rather seems the substitution of a t-stem for a s-stem. The same is true of the change of $v\bar{a}vs$ to vat in the declension of perfect participles (chap. V.).

In the compounds ducchinā (dus-çunā) and párucchepa (parus-çepa), the final s of the first member is treated as if a t (203).

For t as apparent ending of the 3d sing. in s-verbs, see chap. VIII.

169. As the final consonant of derivative stems and of inflected forms, both of declension and of conjugation, s is extremely frequent; and its changes form a subject of first-rate importance in Sanskrit euphony. The r, on the other hand, is quite rare, being found only in certain forms of r-stems and in a few particles.

The euphonic treatment of s and r yielding precisely the same result after all vowels except a and \bar{a} , there are certain forms with regard to which it is uncertain whether they end in s or r, and opinions differ respecting them. Such are us (or ur) of the gen.-abl. sing. of r-stems, and us (or ur) of the 3d plur. of verbs.

170. a. The Hs, as already noticed (145), becomes *visarga* before a pause.

b. It is retained unchanged only when followed by $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ t or $\overline{\mathbf{n}}$ th, the surd mutes of its own class.

c. Before the palatal and lingual surd mutes $- \overline{\eta} c$ and $\overline{\xi} ch$, ξt and $\overline{\xi} th$ — it is assimilated, becoming the sibilant of either class respectively, namely $\overline{\eta} c$ or $\overline{\eta} s$.

d. Before the guttural and labial surd mutes — $\overline{\eta} k$ and $\overline{\eta} kh$, $\overline{\eta} p$ and $\overline{\eta} ph$ — it is also theoretically assimilated, becoming respectively the *jihvāmūlīya* and *upadhmānīya* spirants (69); but in practice these breathings are unknown, and the conversion is to *visarga*.

Examples are: to b. tatas te, cakşus te; to c. tataç ca, tasyāç chāyā; to d. nalah kāmam, puruşah khanati; yaçah prāpa, orkşah phalavān.

171. The first three of these rules are almost universal; to the last there are numerous exceptions, the sibilant being retained (or, by 180, converted into s), especially in compounds; but also, in the Veda, even in sentence combination.

In the Veda, the retention of the sibilant in compounds is the general rule, the exceptions to which are detailed in the Vedic grammars.

In the later language, the retention is mainly determined by the intimacy or the antiquity and frequency of the combination. Thus, the final sibilant of a preposition or a word filling the office of a preposition before a verbal root is wont to be preserved; and that of a stem before a derivative of γ/k_T , before pati, before kalpa and kāma, and so on. Examples are namaskāra, vācaspati, āyuşkāma, payaskalpa.

The Vedic retention of the sibilant in sentence-collocation is detailed in full in the Prātiçākhyas. The chief classes of cases are: **a**. the final of a preposition or its like before a verbal form; **b**. of a genitive before a governing noun: as divás putráh, idás padé; **c**. of an ablative before pári: as

himávatas pári; d. of other less classiflable cases: as dyāús pitá, tris pūtoć, yás pátih, paridhis pátūti, etc.

172. Before an initial sibilant — ज्र ç, ष् ह, स् s — स् s is either assimilated, becoming the same sibilant, or it is changed into visarga.

The native grammarians are in some measure at variance (see APr. ii. 40, note) as to which of these changes should be made, and in part they allow either at pleasure. The usage of the MSS. is also discordant; the conversion to visarga is the prevalent practice, though the sibilant is also not infrequently found written. European editors generally write visarga; but the later dictionaries and glossaries make the alphabetic place of a word the same as if the sibilant were read instead.

Examples are: manuh svayam or manus svayam; indrah çūrah or indraç çūrah.

173. There are one or two exceptions to these rules:

a. If the initial sibilant has a surd mute after it, the final s may be dropped altogether — and by some authorities is required to be so dropped. Thus, vāyava stha or vāyavah stha; catustanām or catuh stanām.

With regard to this point the usage of the different MSS. and editions is greatly at variance.

b. Before *ts*, the *s* is allowed to become *visarga*, instead of being retained.

174. Before a sonant, either vowel or consonant (except $\overline{\chi} r$: see 179), $\overline{\eta} s$ is changed to the sonant $\overline{\chi} r$ — unless, indeed, it be preceded by $\overline{\eta} a$ or $\overline{\eta} \overline{a}$.

Examples are: devapatir iva, çrīr iva; manur gacchati, tanūr apsu; tayor adrstakāmah; sarvāir guņāih; agner manve.

For a few cases like dūdāça, dūņāça, see below, 199.

The endings \overline{a} and \overline{a} and \overline{a} (both of which are extremely common) follow rules of their own, as follows:

175. a. Final $\exists \exists \exists \neg a a$, before any sonant consonant and before short $\exists a$, is changed to $\exists \exists o$ — and the $\exists a$ after it is lost.

The resulting accentuation, and the fact that the loss of a is only occasional in the older language of the Veda, have been pointed out above, 135.

Examples are : nalo nāma, brahmaņyo vedavit; hantavyo 'smi.

b. Final \overline{n} a before any other vowel than \overline{n} a loses its \overline{n} s, becoming simple \overline{n} a; and the hiatus thus occasioned remains. That is to say, as is treated as an original o, or an e, would be treated in the same situation: see 132-4.

Examples are : vrhadaçva uvāca, āditya iva, námaükti.

176. Exceptions to the rules as to final as are:

8. The pronouns sas and eshas (also syas in the Veda) lose their s before any consonant: thus, sa dadarça, esha puruşah; but sadā tu sah, so 'bravīt. The exclamation bhos loses its s before all vowels and all sonant consonants.

b. In the Veda, and more rarely in the later language, the rule for the maintenance of the hiatus is sometimes violated, and the remaining contiguous vowels are combined into one: for example, se'd agne, se 'mām, sāu 'şadhīḥ (for sa id agne, sa imām, sa oṣadhīḥ).

c. A few instances are found (almost all Vedic) of s apparently changed to r after a, as after other vowels: but in nearly every case there is to be assumed, rather, a stem in ar beside that in as, evidences of the former being sometimes found in the kindred languages: thus, in forms of $\hat{u}dhas$ and $\hat{a}has$ (see chap. V.); in amnas (no occurrence); in $bh\bar{u}vas$ (second of the trio $bh\bar{u}s$, bhuvas, svar), except in its oldest occurrences; in $av\bar{a}s$ (once. in RV.); in usas (voc., and in usarbudh); in $v\bar{a}dhar$ and vadhary (RV.); in vanargú, dnarvic, vasarhan, sabardugha, and one or two other more doubtful words; and in a series of words in a single passage of TS. and K., viz. jinvár, ugrár, $bh\bar{u}mar$, tvesar, crutár, $bh\bar{u}tár$, and (K. only) $p\bar{u}tar$.

In aharpáti (VS.), and vanarsád and vanarsád (RV.), we see the same change even before a surd consonant.

d. Final as is once changed to o in RV. before a surd consonant: thus, add pito.

177. Final आस् $\bar{a}s$ before any sonant, whether vowel or consonant, loses its स्s. becoming simple आ \bar{a} ; and the hiatus thus occasioned remains.

The maintenance of the hiatus in these cases, as in that of o and e and $\bar{a}i$ (above, 133—4;, seems to indicate a recent loss of the intermediate sound. Opinions are divided as to what this should have been. Some of the native grammarians assimilate the case of $\bar{a}s$ to that of $\bar{a}i$, assuming the conversion to $\bar{a}y$ in both alike — but probably only as a matter of formal convenience in rule-making.

178. Final \mathbf{T} r, in general, shows the same form which \mathbf{H} s would show under the same conditions. But

a. Original final r, after a or \bar{a} , maintains itself unchanged before a sonant: thus, púnar eti, prātar-jit, áhār dāmnā, ákar jyótiķ.

b. Also before a surd, r is preserved in a few Vedic compounds: thus, svärcanas, svärcaksas, svärpati, svarsä, svärsäti; dhūrsåd, dhūrsåh; purpati. 181]

vārkāryć, \bar{a}_{c} írpada, punartta. In some of these, the r is optionally retained even in the later language.

c. On the other hand, r is lost, like s, in one or two Vedic cases: aksā induh, áha evá.

179. A double r is nowhere admitted: if such would occur, either by retention of an original r or by conversion of s to r, one r is omitted, and the preceding vowel, if short, is made long by compensation.

In some Vedic texts, however (Yajur-Veda), ar becomes o before initial r: thus, svo rohāva.

Conversion of स्s to ष्s.

180. The dental sibilant $\mathfrak{H} s$ is changed to the lingual $\mathfrak{H}_{\mathfrak{S}}$, if immediately preceded by any vowel save $\mathfrak{H} a$ and $\mathfrak{H} \overline{a}$, or by $\mathfrak{H} k$ or $\mathfrak{T} r$ — unless the $\mathfrak{H} s$ be final, or followed by $\mathfrak{T} r$.

The assimilating influence of the preceding lingual vowels and semivowel is obvious enough; that of k and the other vowels appears to be due to a somewhat retracted position of the tongue in the mouth during their utterance, causing its tip to reach the roof of the mouth more easily at a point further back than the dental one.

The general Hindu grammar prescribes the same change after a l also; but the Prātiçākhyas give no such rule, and phonetic considerations, the lbeing a dental sound, are decidedly against it. Actual cases of the combination, if they occur at all, are excessively rare.

The vowels that cause the alteration of s to s may be called for brevity's sake "alterant" vowels.

As a consequence of this rule,

181. In the interior of a Sanskrit word, the dental s is not usually found after any vowel save a and \bar{a} , but, instead of it, the lingual s. But

a. A following r prevents the conversion: thus, usra, tisras, tamisra. And it is but seldom made in the forms and derivatives of a root containing an r-element (whether r or r), whatever the position of that element: thus, sisarti, sisrtam, sarispá, tistire, parisrút. To this rule there are a few exceptions, as vistārd, nistrta, vispardhas, gávisthira, etc. In ajusran the final s of a root is preserved even immediately before r.

This dissimilating influence of a following r, as compared with the invariable assimilating influence of a preceding r, is peculiar and problematical.

b. The recurrence of s in successive syllables is sometimes avoided by

leaving the former s unchanged: thus, sisaksi, but sisakti; yāsisīsthās, but yāsisīmahi. Similarly, in certain desiderative formations: see below, 184c.

c. Other cases are sporadic: RV. has the forms sisice and sisicus (but sisicatus), and the stems rbisa, kistá, bisa, busá, bisaya; a single root pis, with its derivative pesuka, is found once in ÇB.; for puns and the roots nine and hins, see below, 183.

182. On the other hand (as was pointed out above, 62), the occurrence of ε in Sanskrit words is nearly limited to cases falling under this rule: others are rather sporadic anomalies except where ε is the product of ε or $k\varepsilon$ before a dental, as in drastum, caste, trastar: see 218, 221). Thus, we find:

a. Four roots, kas, las, bhas, bhas, of which the last is common and is found as early as the Brähmanas.

b. Further, in RV., ása, kavása, casála, cása, jálāsa, pāsya. baskáya, vásai (for vaksai?), kásihā (for kaksia, Fick); and, by anomalous alteration of original s, -süh (turāsáh, etc.), ásūdha, upasiút, and probably apāsihá and asthīvánt. Such cases grow more common later.

The numeral sas, as already noted, is more probably saks.

188. The nasalization of the alterant vowel — or, in other words, its being followed by anusvāra — does not prevent its altering effect upon the sibilant: thus, havīnṣi, parūnṣi. And the alteration takes place in the initial s of an ending after the final s of a base, whether the latter be regarded as also changed to ş or as converted into visarga: thus, havīṣṣu or haviḥṣu, paruṣṣu or paruḥṣu.

But the s of puns (chap. V.) remains unchanged, apparently on account of the retained sense of its value as puns; also that of γ hins, because of its value as hins (hinasti etc.); γ nins (RV. only) is more questionable (perhaps nins, from nam).

184. The principal cases of alteration of s in internal combination are:

a. In endings, inflectional or derivative, beginning with s — su; si, se, sva; s of sibilant-aorist, future, and desiderative; suffixes sna, snu, sya, etc. — after a final alterant vowel or consonant of root or stem, or a union-vowel: thus, juhoși, çeșe, anāişam, bhavişyāmi, çuçrūşe, deșna, jișnu, vikşu, akārşam.

b. The final s of a stem before an ending or suffix : thus, havişā, havişas, etc., from havis; çakşuşmant, çocişka, mānuşa. manuşya.

Roots having a final sibilant (except c) after an alterant vowel are with the exception of fictitious ones and *pis*, *nins*, *hins* — regarded as ending in s, not s; and concerning the treatment of this s in combination, see below, **225** ff. 188] .

c. The initial s of a root after a reduplication : thus, sisyade, susvāpa, sisāsati, coskūyate, sanisvaņat.

Excepted is in general an initial radical s in a desiderative stem, when the desiderative-sign becomes s: thus, sisanisati from γ san, sisanisati from γ sanj.

185. But the same change occurs also, on a considerable scale, in external combination, especially in composition: thus,

Both in verbal forms and in derivatives, the final *i* or *u* of a preposition or other like prefix ordinarily lingualizes the initial *s* of the root to which it is prefixed; since such combinations are both of great frequency and of peculiar intimacy, analogous with those of root or stem and affix: thus, *abhişác*, *pratighá*, *nigikta*, *vigita*; *anuşvadhám*, *sugéka*.

The principal exceptions are in accordance with the principles already laid down: namely, when the root contains an r-element, and when a recurrence of the sibilant would take place. But there are also others, of a more irregular character; and the complete account of the treatment of initial radical s after a prefix would be a matter of great detail, and not worth giving here.

In a few cases, the initial s, usually altered after a certain prefix, retains the altered sibilant even after an interposed a of augment or reduplication: thus, abhy asthām, pary asasvajat, vy asahanta, ny asadāma, abhy asiācan, vy astabhnāt; vi tasthe, vi tasthire.

Much more anomalous is the occasional alteration of initial radical s after an a-element of a prefix. Such cases are ava stambh (against ni stambh and prati stambh) and (according to the grammarians) ava svan.

186. In other compounds, the final alterant vowel of the first member not infrequently (especially in the Veda) lingualizes the initial s of the second: for example, yudhisthira, pitrevas, goethá, agnistomá, anuetubh, trisandhi, divisád, parameethin, abhisená, pitreád, purustutá.

A very few cases occur of the same alteration after an *a*-element: thus, savyasthá, apästhá, upastút; also γ sah, when its final, by 148, becomes t: thus, satrāsát (but satrāsátham).

187. The final s of the first member of a compound often becomes s after an alterant vowel: thus, the s of a prepositional prefix, as *nissidhvan*, *dustára* (for *dusstára*), *āviskrta*; and, regularly, a s retained instead of being converted to visarga before a labial or guttural mute (171), as *havispá*, *jyotiskrti*; *tapuspá*.

188. Once more, in the Veda, the same alteration, both of an initial and of a final s, is not infrequent even between the words composing a sentence. The cases are detailed in the Prātiçākhya belonging to each text, and are of very various character. Thus,

a. The initial s, especially of particles: as $\bar{u} \neq \hat{u}$, hf sma, kám u svít;

— also of pronouns: as hf sch; — of verb-forms, especially from \sqrt{as} : as hf sthå, diví stha; — and in other scattering cases: as u stuhi, mű sthirám, trť sadhásthā.

b. A final s, oftenest before pronouns (especially toneless ones): as agnis tvā, nis te, īyūs té, cúcis tvám, sádhis táva; — but also in other cases, and wherever a final s is preserved, instead of being turned into visarga, before a guttural or labial (171): as tris pūtvá, áyus krņotu, vástos pátih, dyāvs pitá.

Conversion of n to n.

189. The dental nasal $\neg n$, when immediately followed by a vowel or by $\neg n$ or $\neg m$ or $\neg y$ or $\neg v$, is turned into the lingual $\neg n$ if preceded in the same word by the lingual sibilant or semivowel or vowels — that is to say, by $\neg s$, $\neg r$, or $\neg r ?$ or $\neg ?$ —: and this, not only if the altering letter stands immediately before the nasal, but at whatever distance from the latter it may be found: unless, indeed, there intervene (a consonant moving the front of the tongue: namely) a palatal (except $\neg y$), a lingual, or a dental.

We may thus figure to ourselves the rationale of the process: in the marked proclivity of the language toward lingual utterance, especially of the nasal, the tip of the tongue, when once reverted into the loose lingual position by the utterance of a non-contact lingual element, tends to hang there and make its next nasal contact in that position: and does so, unless the proclivity is satisfied by the utterance of a lingual mute, or the organ is thrown out of adjustment by the utterance of an element which causes it to assume a different posture. This is not the case with the gutturals or labials, which do not move the front part of the tongue (and, as the influence of k on following s shows, the guttural position favors the succession of a lingual; and the y is too weakly palatal to interfere with the alteration (as its next relative, the i-vowel, itself lingualises a s).

This is a rule of constant application; and (as was pointed out above) the great majority of occurrences of n in the language are the result of it.

190. The rule has force especially

a. When suffixes, of inflection or derivation, are added to roots or stems containing one of the altering sounds: thus, rudréna, rudránām, váriņe, váriņī, várīņi, dūtŕņi, hárāņi, dvéshāņi, krīņámi, çrņóti, kņubhāņá, ghrņá, kárņa, vrkņá, rugņá, dráviņa, isāņi, purāņá, rékņas, cáksaņa, cíkīrsamāņa, kŕpamāņa. b. When the final n of a root or stem comes to be followed, in inflection or derivation, by such sounds as allow it to feel the effect of a preceding altering cause: thus, from γ ran, ránanti, rányati, rāraņa, arānisus; from brahman, bráhmaņā, bráhmāņi, brāhmaņá, brahmanya, bráhmanvant.

191. This rule (like that for the change of s to s) applies strictly and especially when the nasal and the cause of its alteration both lie within the limits of the same integral word; but (also like the other) it is extended, within certain limits, to compound words — and even, in the Veda, to contiguous words in the sentence.

192. Especially, a preposition or similar prefix to a root, if it contain r or end in euphonic r for s (174), very often lingualizes the n of a root or of its derived stems and forms. Thus:

a. The initial n of a root is usually and regularly so altered, in all forms and derivatives, after parā, pari, pra, nir (for nis), antar, dur (for dus): thus, párā ņaya, pári ņīyate, prá ņudasva; parāņutti, pariņāma, praņava, nirņīj, durņāça.

Roots suffering this change are written with initial n in the native rootlists. The only exceptions of importance are nrt, nabh, nand (very rare), and nac when its c becomes s (as in pranasta).

b. The final n of a root is lingualized in some of the forms of an and han: thus, prā 'niti, prāná, prá hanyate, prahánana.

c. The class-signs nu and $n\bar{\alpha}$ are altered after the roots hi and mi: thus, pári hiņomi, prá miņanti (but the latter not in the Veda).

d. The 1st sing. impv. ending ani is sometimes altered: thus, prá bhavani.

e. Derivatives by suffixes containing n sometimes have n by influence of a preposition: thus, prayána.

f. The n of the preposition ni is sometimes altered, like the initial of a root, after another preposition: thus, pranipāta, pranidhi.

193. In compound words, an altering cause in one member sometimes lingualizes a n of the next following member — either its initial or final n, or n in its inflectional or derivative ending. The exercise of the altering influence can be seen to depend in part upon the closeness or frequency of the compound, or its integration by being made the base of a derivative. Examples are: grāmaņī, triņāman, urūņasā; vytrahāņam etc. (but vytraghnā te.: 195), nymāņas, drughaņā; pravāhaņa, nypāņa, pūryāņa, pityvāņa; svargēņa, durgāņi, usrāyūmņe, tryangāņām.

194. Finally, in the Veda, a n (usually initial) is lingualized even by an altering sound in another word. The toneless pronouns nas and ena- are oftenest thus affected: thus, pári ņas, prāt 'nān, índra eṇam; but also the particle nâ, 'like': thus, vắr ņá; and a few other cases, as vấr nắma, púnar nayūmasi, agnér ávena. 195. The immediate combination of a n with a preceding guttural or labial seems in some cases to hinder the conversion to n: thus, vytraghná etc. ksubhnāti, typnoti (but in Veda typnu).

Conversion of dental mutes to linguals and palatals.

196. When a dental mute comes in contact with a lingual or palatal mute or sibilant, the dental is usually assimilated, becoming lingual or palatal respectively.

The cases are the following:

197. A dental surd mute or nasal, or the dental sibilant, when immediately preceded by a *ş*, is everywhere converted into the corresponding lingual.

Under this rule, the combinations *st*, *sth*, and *sn* are very common; *ss* is rarely so written, the visarga being put instead of the former sibilant: thus, *jyótihşu* instead of *jyótisşu*.

Those cases in which final s becomes t before su (226 b) do not, of course, fall under this rule.

198. In the other (comparatively infrequent) cases where a dental is preceded by a lingual in internal combination, the dental (except of *su* loc. pl.) becomes lingual. Thus:

a. A dh after d from s of a root or stem (226 b): as adviddhvam etc.

b. Only a very few other instances occur: if the and diffa from $\sqrt{i}d$; saddha (also saddha and sodha), and sannam (sas + nam: anomalous gen. pl. of sas); trans ($\sqrt{trd + na}$). A small number of words follow the same rule in external combination: see below, **199**.

But $t\bar{a}dhi$ (Vedic: $\gamma tad + dhi$) shows loss of the final lingual after assimilation of the dental, and compensatory lengthening.

Some of the cases of abnormal occurrence of d are explained in a similar way, as results of a lingualized and afterward omitted sibilant before d: thus $n\bar{n}d\hat{a}$ from nisda, $\sqrt{p\bar{n}d}$ from pisd, \sqrt{mrd} from mrsd (Zend marczhd \bar{a}). For words exhibiting a like change in composition, see below, 199 b.

199. In external combination,

a. A final t is directed to be assimilated to an initial lingual mute: thus, $ta_i \cdot ik\bar{a}$, tad, dayate, $ta_i \cdot ik\bar{a}lin\bar{n}$, tad, $dh\bar{a}ukate$: but the case never occurs in the older language, and very rarely in the later. For final n before a lingual, see **205**.

b. An initial dental after a final lingual usually remains unchanged; and su of the loc. pl. follows the same rule: thus, satsú, rātsú.

Exceptions are: a few compounds with sas, 'six': namely, sannavati, sannabhi (and one or two others not quotable from the literature).

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In a few compounds, moreover, there appears a lingualized dental, with compensatory lengthening, after a lost lingual sibilant or its representative: namely, in certain Vedic compounds with $dus: d\bar{u}ddbha, d\bar{u}dd\dot{c}, d\bar{u}dh\dot{f}, d\bar{u}$ máça, $d\bar{u}n\dot{d}ca$; and, in the language of every period, certain compounds of gas, with change of its vowel to an alterant quality (as in vodhum and sodhum: 224 b): sódaça, sodhá (also saddhá and saddhá), sodant.

c. Between final *t* and initial *s*, the insertion of a *t* is permitted — or, according to some authorities, required : thus, sat sahasrah or satt sahasrah.

200. The cases of assimilation of a dental to a contiguous palatal occur almost only in external combination, and before an initial palatal. There is but one case of internal combination, namely:

201. A \neg *n* coming to follow a palatal mute in internal combination is itself made palatal:

Thus, $y\bar{a}c\bar{n}\dot{a}$ (the only instance after c), $yaj\bar{n}\dot{a}$, $jaj\bar{n}\dot{a}$, $aj\bar{n}ata$, $r\dot{a}j\bar{n}\bar{a}$, $r\dot{a}j\bar{n}\bar{a}$.

202. An final η t before an initial palatal mute is assimilated to it, becoming ηc before ηc or \mathfrak{F} ch, and \mathfrak{F} j before \mathfrak{F} j (\mathfrak{H} jh does not occur).

A final $\exists n$ is assimilated before $\exists j$, becoming $\exists n$.

All the grammarians, of every period, require this assimilation of n; but it is more often neglected, or only sporadically made, in the MSS.

For n before a surd palatal, see below, 208.

203. Before the palatal sibilant \mathfrak{P}_{ς} , both \mathfrak{n}_{t} and \mathfrak{P}_{n} are assimilated, becoming respectively \mathfrak{P}_{c} and \mathfrak{I}_{n} ; and then the following \mathfrak{P}_{ς} may be, and in practice almost always is, converted to \mathfrak{F}_{ch} .

Some authorities regard the conversion of ς to *ch* as everywhere obligatory, others as only optional; some except, peremptorily or optionally, a ς followed by a mute. And some require the same conversion after every mute save *m*, reading also *vipūt chutudri*, *dnat chúci*, *anustup chūradī*, *çuk chuci*. The MSS. generally write *ch*, instead of *cch*, as result of the combination of *t* and ς .

Combinations of final n.

204. Final radical *n* is assimilated in internal combination to a following sibilant, becoming anusvāra.

Thus, vánsi, vánsva, vánsat, mansyáte, jíyhānsati.

According to the grammarians, it is treated before bh and su in declen-

sion as in external combination. But the cases are extremely rare, and RV. has ránsu and vánsu (the only Vedic examples).

Final n of a derivative suffix is regularly and usually dropped before a consonant in inflection and composition — in composition, even before a vowel; and a radical n occasionally follows the same rule.

For assimilation of n to a preceding palatal, see 201.

The remaining cases are those of external combination.

205. The assimilation of n in external combination to a following sonant palatal and the palatal sibilant ς have been already treated (**202**, **203**).

The *n* is also declared to be assimilated (becoming n) before a sonant lingual (d, dh, n), but the case hardly ever occurs.

206. A n is also assimilated to a following initial l, becoming (like m: 213 c) a nasal l.

The MSS, in general attempt to write the combination in accordance with this rule.

207. Before the lingual and dental sibilants, s and s, final n remains unchanged; but a t may also be inserted between the nasal and the sibilant: thus, tán sát or tánt sát; mahán sán or mahánt sán.

According to most of the grammarians of the Prātiçākhyas (not RPr.), the insertion of the t in such cases is a necessary one. In the MSS. it is very frequently made, but not uniformly. It is probably a purely phonetic phenomenon, a transition-sound to ease the double change of sonant to surd and nasal to non-nasal utterance — although the not infrequent cases in which final n stands for original nt (as *bharan*, *abharan*, *agnimān*) may have aided to establish it as a rule. Its analogy with the conversion of n c into nch (203) is palpable.

208. Before the surd palatal, lingual, and dental mutes, there is inserted after final n a sibilant of each of those classes respectively, before which the n becomes anusvāra: thus, nc c; nc ch; ns t; ns th; ns t; ns th.

This rule, which in the classical language has established itself in the form here given, as a phonetic rule of unvarying application, really involves a historic survival. The large majority of cases of final n in the language (not far from three quarters: see APr. ii. 26, note) are for original ns; and the retention of the sibilant in such cases, when once its historical ground had been forgotten, was extended by analogy to all others.

Practically, the rule applies only to n before c and t, since cases involving the other initials occur either not at all, or only with extreme rarity (the Veda does not present an example of any of them). In the Veda, the insertion is not always made, and the different texts have with regard to it different usages, which are fully explained in their Prātiçākhyas; in general, 213

it is less frequent in the older texts. When the c does not appear between n and c, the n is assimilated, becoming \tilde{n} (as before j: 202).

209. The same retention of original final s after a nasal, and consequent treatment of (apparent) final $\bar{a}n$, $\bar{n}n$, $\bar{u}n$, $\bar{r}n$ as if they were $\bar{a}ns$, $\bar{n}s$, $\bar{u}ns$, $\bar{r}ns$ (long nasalized vowel with final s), shows itself also in other Vedic forms of combination, which, for the sake of unity, may be briefly stated here together :

a. Final $\bar{a}n$ becomes $\bar{a}n$ (nasalized \bar{a}) before a following vowel: that is to say, $\bar{a}ns$, with nasal vowel, is itreated like $\bar{a}s$, with pure vowel (177): thus, deván é 'há, úpabaddhān ihá, mahán así. This is an extremely common case, especially in RV. Once or twice, the s appears as h before p: thus, svátavānh pāyúh.

b. In like manner, s is treated after nasal \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \bar{r} as it would be after those vowels when pure, becoming r before a sonant sound (174), and (much more rarely) h before a surd (170): thus, racminr iva, sūnūnr yuvanyūnr ūt, nfir abhí; nfih pắtram.

210. The nasals n, n, \bar{n} , occurring as finals after a short vowel, are doubled before any initial vowel: thus, pratyánn úd eşi, udyánn ādityáh.

This is also to be regarded as a historical survival, the second nasal being an assimilation of an original consonant following the first. It is always written in the MSS., although the Vedic metre seems to show* that the duplication was sometimes omitted.

211. The nasal \bar{n} and \bar{n} before a sibilant are allowed to insert respectively k and t — as n (207) inserts t: thus, praty- $d\bar{n}k$ some h.

Combinations of final m.

212. Final radical $\underline{\neg} m$, in internal combination, is assimilated to a following mute or spirant — in the latter case, becoming *anusvāra*; in the former, becoming the nasal of the same class with the mute.

Before *m* or *v* (as when final: 143), it is changed to *n*: thus, from \sqrt{gam} , áganma, aganmahi, ganvahi, jaganváńs (which appear to be the only quotable cases). According to the grammarians, the same change is made in the inflection of root-stems, before bh and su: thus, praçānbhis, praçānsu (from praçām: $pra + \sqrt{cam}$). No derived noun-stem ends in *m*.

CB. has once the anomalous kámvant, from the particle kám.

213. Final $\underline{\exists} m$ in external combination is a servile sound, being assimilated to any following consonant. Thus:

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^{*} Kuhn, in his Beiträge etc., iii. 125. Whitney, Grammar.

a. It remains unchanged only before a vowel or a labial mute.

But also, by an anomalous exception, before r of the root $r\bar{u}j$ in $samr\bar{t}j$ and its derivatives $samr\bar{u}j\bar{n}\bar{s}$ and $s\bar{u}mr\bar{u}jya$.

b. Before a mute of any other class than labial, it becomes the nasal of that class.

c. Before the semivowels y, l, v it becomes, according to the Hindu grammarians, a nasal semivowel, the nasal counterpart of each respectively (see 71).

d. Before r, a sibilant, or h, it becomes anusvāra (see 71).

The MSS. and the editions in general make no attempt to distinguish the nasal tones arising from the assimilation of m before a following semivowel from that before a spirant.

e. But if h be immediately followed by another consonant (which can only be a nasal or semivowel), the m is allowed to be assimilated to that following consonant.

This is because the h has no position of the mouth-organs peculiar to itself, but is uttered in the position of the next sound. The Prātiçākhyas do not take any notice of the case.

It has been pointed out above (73) that the assimilated m is generally represented in texts by the *anusvāra*-sign, and that in this work it is transliterated by \dot{m} (instead of a nasal mute or \dot{n}). Also, that the general grammarians allow m to be pronounced before any and every consonant as *anusvāra*.

The palatal mutes and sibilant, and λ .

214. These sounds show in some situations a reversion to the original gutturals from which they are derived. The treatment of j and h, also, is different, according as they represent the one or the other of two different degrees of alteration from their originals.

215. The palatals and h are the least stable of alphabetic sounds, undergoing, in virtue of their derivative character, alteration in many cases where other similar sounds are retained.

216. Thus, in derivation, even before vowels, semivowels. and nasals, reversion to guttural form is by no means rare. The cases are the following:

1. Before a of suffix a, final c becomes k in aākā, arkā, pākā, vākā, parka, markā, vfka, prátīka etc., ecka, sēka, moka, rokā, cóka, tokā, mrokā. vraskā: — final j becomes g in tyūgā, bhāga, bhūgā, yūga, bhaāgā, saāya, varga, mārga, mrgā, sarga, vega, bhóya, yugā, yóga, róga: — final h becomes gh in aghā, maghā, arghā, dīrghā (and drīghīyas, drāghistha), meghā, dógha. drógha, mógha: and in dúghāna.

In another series of derivatives with a, the altered sound appears: examples are $aj\hat{a}$, $y\bar{a}ja$, $cuc\hat{a}$, coca. $vraj\hat{a}$, $vevij\hat{a}$, yuja, $\bar{u}rj\hat{a}$, $d\delta ha$. 217]

Before the suffixes as and ana, the guttural only rarely appears: namely, in $\hat{ank}as$, δkas , $r\delta kas$, $c\delta kas$, $bh \hat{ar}gas$; and in rogana.

2. Before an i-vowel, the altered sound appears (except in the doubtful *ābhogl*): e. g. *ājl*, tujl, rúci, çácī, vívici, rociņņú.

3. Before u, the guttural reappears, as a rule (the cases are few): thus, anku, vankú, rekú, bhýgu.

4. Before n, the examples of reversion are few, except of j (becoming g) before the participial ending na: thus, réknas, vagnú (with the final also made sonant); and participles bhagnú, rugnú, etc.; and apparently prgna from V prc.

5. Before m (of ma, man, min,, the guttural generally appears: thus, rukmá, tigmá, çagmá (with sonant change); vákman, sákman, rukmán; rgmín and vāgmín (with sonant change): — but ájman, ojmán, bhujmán.

6. Before y, the altered sound is used: thus, pacya, yajya, yajya, yajya, bhujyu. Such cases as bhogya and yogya are doubtless secondary derivatives from bhoga and yoga.

 Before r, the cases are few, and the usage apparently divided: thus, cukrá, ugrá, mrgra; but vájra and pajrá (?).

8. Before v (of the suffixes va, van, vin, etc., and participial $v\bar{u}ns$) the guttural is regularly preserved: thus, rkvå, pakvå; rkvan, rikvan, cukvan, mrgvan, yugvan; $v\bar{u}gvin$ (with further sonant change); ririkvins, rurukvåns, cucukvans; cucukvanå, cucukvani: also before the union-vowel i in okivans (RV., once). An exception is yájvan.

The reversion of h in derivation is exhibited only before the suffix a (and in the participle $digh\bar{a}na$, RV.). The final j which is analogous with c (219) shows much less proclivity to reversion than that which corresponds with c.

9. A like reversion shows itself also to some extent in conjugational stem-formation and inflection. Thus, the initial radical becomes guttural after the reduplication in the present or perfect or desiderative or intensive stems of the roots *ci*, *cit*, *ji*, *hi*, *han*; and *han* becomes *ghn* on the elision of *a*. The RV. has vivakmi from γ vac. And before ran etc. of 3d pl. mid. we have g for radical j in asygran, asygram, assignam (all in RV.).

217. Final $\exists c$ of a root or stem, if followed in internal combination by any other sound than a vowel or semivowel or nasal, reverts to its original guttural value, and shows everywhere the same form which a $\exists k$ would show in the same situation.

Thus, vákti, uváktha, vákşi, vakşyámi, vagdhí; vägbhis, väkşú; uktá, ukthá, vaktár.

And, as final c becomes k (above, 142), the same rule applies also to c in external combination: thus, vák ca, vág ápi, ván me.

217-

Examples of c remaining unchanged in inflection are : ucyáte, riricré, vāci, mumucmáhe.

218. Final $\P \notin$ reverts to its original $\P \hbar$, in internal combination, only before the $\P s$ of a verbal stem or ending (whence, by 180, $\P \hbar s$); before $\P t$ and $\P t\hbar$, it everywhere becomes $\P s$ (whence, by 197, $\mathfrak{P} st$ and $\mathfrak{P} st\hbar$); before $\P d\hbar$, $\mathfrak{P} \delta\hbar$, and $\mathfrak{H} su$ of the loc. pl., as when final (145), it regularly becomes the lingual mute (ξt or ξd).

Thus, áviksata, veksyámi; vásti, vistá, didestu; dididdhi, vidbhis.

But a few roots exhibit the reversion of final c to k before bh and su, and also when final (145): they are dic, drc, sprc, and optionally nac (always, in V.); and vic has in V. always viksú, loc. pl., but vit, vidbhis, etc. Examples are diksamcita, drgbhis, hrdispik, ndk.

Examples of ç remaining unchanged before vowels etc. are: viçí, viviçyās, aviçran, açnomi, vaçmi, uçmási.

A c remains irregularly unchanged before p in the compound vicpáti.

219. Final $\overline{\eta} j$ is in one set of words treated like $\overline{\eta} c$, and in another set like $\overline{\eta} c$.

Thus, from ynj: áyukthās, áyukta, yuākté, yukti, yóktra, yoksyāmi, yuksú; yuāgāhi, áyugāhvam, yngbhis.

Again, from mrj etc.: ámrksat, sraksyámi; mársti, mrstá, srsti, rāstrá; mrddhi, mrddhvám, rādbhis, rātsú, rát.

To the former or guj-class belong (as shown by their quotable forms) about twenty roots and radical stems: namely, bhaj, saj, tyaj (not V.), raj 'color', svaj, majj, nij, tij, vij, 1 and 2 bhuj, yuj, ruj, vrj, añj, bhañj, ciñj; $\bar{u}rj$, sraj, bhisúj, dsrj; — also, stems formed with the suffixes aj and ij (383.5), as tranúj, vaníj: and riv(j, though containing the root yaj.

To the latter or mrj-class belong only about one third as many: namely, yaj, bhrajj, vraj, räj, bhräj, mrj, srj.

A considerable number of j-roots are not placed in circumstances to exhibit the distinction; but such roots are in part assignable to one or the other class on the evidence of the related languages⁴. The distinction appears, namely, only when the j occurs as final, or is followed, either in inflection or in derivation, by a dental mute (t, th, dh), or, in noun-inflection, by bh or su. In derivation (above, **216**) we find a g sometimes from the mrj-class: thus, mārga (in apāmārga) and sarga; and before r of Vedic 3d pl. mid. endings, asrgran, asrgram, asasrgram (beside sasrjrire) — while from the yuj-class occur only yuyujre, ayujran, bubhujrire, with j.

^{*} See Hübschmann, in KZ. xxiii. 384 ff.

220. Final ch falls under the rules of combination almost only in the root *prach*, in which it is treated as if it were ς (and *prac* is perhaps its more original form): thus, *praksyami*, *pratá*; and also the derivative *pracná*. As final and in noun-inflection (before bh and su), it is directed to be changed to the lingual mute.

 $M\bar{u}rt\dot{a}$ is called the participle of $m\bar{u}rch$, and a gerund $m\bar{u}rtv\dot{a}$ is given to the same root. They (with $m\ddot{u}rti$) must doubtless come from a simpler form of the root.

Of jh there is no occurrence: the grammarians declare it to be treated like c.

221. The compound k_{2} is not infrequent as final of a root (generally of demonstrably secondary origin', or of a tense-stem (s-aorist: see below, chap. XI.); and, in the not very frequent cases of its internal combination, it is treated as if a single sound, following the rules for ς : thus, $c\dot{a}k_{2}e$ ($cak_{2} + se$), $c\dot{a}k_{2}va$; $c\dot{a}_{2}e$, $\dot{a}cas_{1}a$, $\dot{a}sr\bar{a}s_{1}am$, $\dot{a}sr_{2}a$, $tv\dot{a}s_{1}ar$. As to its treatment when final, see 146. We are taught by the grammarians to make such forms as gorát, gorádbhis, gorátsu (from goráks); and we actually have $s\dot{a}t$, sadbhis, satsu from sak_{2} or sas (146, end).

In the single anomalous root vrace, the compound cc is said to follow the rule for simple c: thus, vraksyáti, ávrāksam; vrasta. Its c reverts to k in vraska. Its participle is vrkná; it has a Vedic gerund vrktví.

222. The roots in final $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ h, like those in $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$, fall into two classes, exhibiting a similar diversity of treatment, appearing in the same kinds of combination.

In the one class, as duh, we have a reversion of h (as of c) to a guttural form, and its treatment as if it were still its original gh: thus, ddhuksam, dhoksyami; dugdham, dugdha; ddhok, dhuk, dhuksa.

In the other class, as *ruh* and *sah*, we have a guttural reversion (as of c) only before *s* in verb-formation and derivation: thus, *drukşat*, *rokşyámi*, *sākşāyá*, *sakşáyi*. As final, in external combination, and in noun-inflection before *bh* and *su*, the *h* (like c) becomes a lingual mute: thus, *turāşáț*, *prtanāşád*, *ayodhyáh*, *turāşádbhis*, *turāşáţsu*. But before a dental mute (t, th, dh) in verb-inflection and in derivation, its euphonic effect is peculiarly complicated: it turns the dental into a lingual (as would c_i ; but it also makes it sonant and aspirate (as would dh: see 160); and further, it disappears itself, and the preceding vowel, if short, is lengthened by way of compensation: thus, from *ruh* with *ta* comes *rūdhá*, from *leh* with *ti* comes *lédhi*, from *guh*

lik with tas or thas comes lighds, from lik with dhvam comes lighedam, etc.

This is as if we had to assume as transition sound a sonant aspirate lingual sibilant zh, with the euphonic effects of a lingual and of a sonant aspirate (160), itself disappearing under the law of the existing language which admits no sonant sibilant.

223. The roots of the two classes, as shown by their forms found in use, are:

of the first or duh-class: dah, dih, duh, druh, muh, snih (and the final of usnih is similarly treated);

of the second or ruh-class: vah, sah, mih, rih or lih, guh, ruh, drih, trih, brh, baih, sprh (?).

But muh forms also (not in KV.) the participle $m\bar{u}dha$ and agent-noun $m\bar{u}dh\bar{a}r$, as well as mugdhá and mugdhár; and druh and snih are allowed by the grammarians to do likewise: such forms as $dr\bar{u}dha$ and snidha, however, do not appear to have been met with in use.

From roots of the ruh-class we find also in the Veda the forms gart $\bar{a}r\bar{a}rk$, nom. sing., and pr $\bar{a}nadhik$ and dadhik; and hence puruspik (the only occurrence) does not prove γ spin to be of the duh-class.

A number of other h-roots are not proved by their occurring forms to belong to either class; they, too, are with more or less confidence assigned to the one or the other by comparison with the related languages^{*}.

In derivation, before the suffix a, we have (216.1) meghá and $d\bar{r}rghá$ from roots of the ruh-class. Before the r verb-endings, we have examples only from duh, with h: thus, duduhre etc.

The root nah comes from original dh instead of gh, and its reversion is accordingly to a dental instead of a guttural mute: thus, natsyimi, naddhá, upūnádbhis, upūnad-yuga.

224. Irregularities of combination are :

a. The vowel r is not lengthened to compensate for the loss of the *h*-element: thus, *drdhá*, *trdhá*, *brdhá* (the only cases; and in the Veda their first syllable has metrical value as heavy or long).

b. The roots vah and sah change their vowel to o instead of lengthening it: thus, vodhám, vodhám, vodhár, sódhum. But from sah in the older language forms with \bar{a} are more frequent: thus, sādhá, ásādha (also later), sádhar. The root trinh changes the vowel of its class-sign na into e instead of lengthening it: thus, trinedhi, trinedhu, atrinet (the grammarians teach also trinehmi and trineksi: if such forms are actually in use, they must have been made by false analogy with the others).

These anomalous vowel-changes seem to stand in connection with the fact that the cases showing them are the only ones where other than an

^{*} See Hübschmann, as above.

alterant vowel (180) comes before the lingualised sibilant representative of the h. Compare sodaça etc.

Apparently by dissimilation, the final of vah in the anomalous compound anadvah is changed to d instead of d: see 404.

The lingual sibilant g.

225. Since the lingual sibilant, in its usual and normal occurrences, is (182) the product of lingualization of *s* after certain alterant sounds, we might expect final radical *s*, when (in rare cases) it comes to stand where a *s* cannot maintain itself, to revert to its original, and be treated as a *s* would be treated under the same circumstances. That, however, is only true in a very few instances.

Namely, in the prefix dus (evidently identical with γdus); in sajús (adverbially used case-form from γjus); in (RV.) vivés and évives, from γvis ; in $\bar{a}iyes$ (RV.), from γis ; and in \bar{a}_i for cis as secondary form of $\gamma c\bar{a}s$. All these, except the first two, are more or less open to question.

226. In general, final lingual $\Psi \notin$ is treated in the same manner as palatal $\Psi \notin$. Thus:

a. Before *t* and *th* it remains unchanged, and the latter are assimilated : e. g. dvistas, dvisthas, dvistam.

This is a common and perfectly natural combination.

b. Before dh, bh, and su, as also in external combination 145, it becomes a lingual mute; and dh is made lingual after it: thus, pinddhi, rividdhi, rividdhi, dviddhvam, dvidbhis, dviysú.

The same holds good of the altered s of a tense-sign: thus, *ústoddhvam* (from *astos-dhvam*).

The conversion of s to t (or d) as final and before bh and su is parallel with the like conversion of c, and of j and h in the *mrj* and *ruh* classes of roots, and perhaps with the occasional change of s to t (167—8). It is a very infrequent case, occurring (save as it may be assumed in the case of sas) only once in RV. and once in AV. (-dvit and -prut), although those texts have more than 40 roots with final s; in the Brähmanas, moreover, has been noticed further only -clit. From pins, RV. has the irregular form pinak (2d and 3d sing., for pinag-s and pinag-t).

c. Before s in internal combination (except su of loc. pl.) it becomes k: thus. dvéksi, dveksydmi, ádviksam.

This change is of anomalous phonetic character, and difficult of explanation. It is also practically of very rare occurrence. The only RV. examples (apart from *pinak*, above) are *viveksi*, from γvis , and the desid. stem *riviksa* from γris ; AV. has only *dviksat* and *dviksata*, and the desid. stem *cicliksa* from $\gamma clis$. Other examples are quotable from $\gamma \gamma krs$ (CB. etc.), *cis* (CB.), and *pis* (Khānd. Up.); and they are by the Hindu grammarians prescribed to be formed from about half-a-dozen other roots.

Extension and Abbreviation.

227. As a general rule, ch is not allowed by the grammarians to stand in that form after a vowel, but is to be doubled, becoming cch (which the MSS. sometimes write chch).

The various authorities disagree with one another in detail as to this duplication. According to Pānini, ch is doubled within a word after either a long or a short vowel; and, as initial, necessarily after a short and after the particles $\dot{\alpha}$ and $m\dot{\alpha}$, and optionally everywhere after a long. In RV., initial ch is doubled after a long vowel of $\dot{\alpha}$ only, and certain special cases after a short vowel are excepted. For the required usage in the other Vedic texts, see their several Prātiçākhyas. The Kāţhaka writes for original ch (not ch from combination of t and n with c: 203) after a vowel everywhere cch.

Opinions are still at variance as to how far this duplication has an etymological ground, and how far it is only an acknowledgment of the fact that ch makes a heavy syllable even after a short vowel (makes "position": 79).

228. After r, any consonant (save a spirant before a vowel) is by the grammarians either allowed or required to be doubled (an aspirate, by prefixing the corresponding non-aspirate : 154).

Some of the authorities include, along with τ , also h or l or v, or more than one of them, in this rule.

A doubled consonant after r is very common in MSS. and inscriptions, as also in native text-editions and in the earlier editions prepared by European scholars — in later ones, the duplication is universally omitted.

229. The first consonant of a group — whether interior, or initial after a vowel of a preceding word — is by the grammarians either allowed or required to be doubled.

This duplication is allowed by Pānini and required by the Prātiçākhyas — in both, with mention of authorities who deny it altogether. For certain exceptions, see the Prātiçākhyas: the meaning of the whole matter is too obscure to justify the giving of details here.

230. Other cases of extension of consonant-groups, required by some of the grammatical authorities, are the following:

a. Between a non-nasal and a nasal mute, the insertion of so-called *yamas* ('twins'), or nasal counterparts, is taught by the Prātiçākhyas (and assumed in Pāņini's commentary): see APr. 1. 99, note.

b. Between h and a following nasal mute the Prātiçākhyas teach the insertion of a nasal sound called $n\bar{a}sikya$: see APr. 1. 100, note.

c. Between r and a following consonant the Prātiçākhyas teach the insertion of a svarabhakti or 'vowel-fragment': see APr. i. 101-2, note.

Some authorities assume this insertion only before a spirant; the others regard it as twice as long before a spirant as before any other consonant — namely, a half or a quarter mora before the former, a quarter or an eighth before the latter. One (VPr.) admits it after l as well as r. It is variously described as a fragment of the vowel a or of r (or l_i).

The RPr. puts a *svarabhakti* also between a sonant consonant and a following mute or spirant; and APr. introduces an element called *sphotana* ('distinguisher') between a guttural and a preceding mute of another class.

For one or two other cases of yet more doubtful value, see the Prātiçākhyas.

231. After a nasal, the former of two non-nasal mutes may be dropped, whether homogeneous only with the nasal, or with both: thus, yundhi for yungdhi, yundhvám for yungdhvám, antám for anktám, chintám for chinttám, bhinthá for bhinthá, indhé for inddhé.

This abbreviation, allowed by Pānini, is required by APr. (the other Prātiçākhyas take no notice of it,. It is the usual practice of the MSS., though the full group is also often written.

232. In general, a double mute (including an aspirate which is doubled by the prefixion of a non-aspirate) in combination with any other consonant is by the manuscripts written as simple.

That is to say, the ordinary usage of the MSS. makes no difference between those groups in which a phonetic duplication is allowed by the rules given above (228, 229) and those in which the duplication is etymological. As every tv after a vowel may also be properly written *itv*, so daitvá and tativá may be, and almost invariably are, written as datvá and tatvá. As kártana is also properly kártiana, so kārttika (from kriti) is written as kārtika. So in inflection, we have always, for example, majād etc., not majjād, from majján. Even in composition and sentence-collocation the same abbreviations are made: thus, hrdyotá for hrddyotá; chináty asya for chinátty asya. Hence it is impossible to determine by the evidence of written usage whether we should regard ādhvam or āddhvam (from \sqrt{as}), ádvidhvam or ádviddhvam (from \sqrt{dvis}) as the true form of a second person plural.

233. Among occasional omissions of an etymologically justified member of a consonant-group, is of importance enough to be here noticed that

A s is sometimes lost (perhaps after assimilation) between two surd mutes: thus,

a. The initial s of the roots sthā and stabh after the preposition ut: thus, utthátum for utsthátum, úttabhnoti for útstabhnoti.

b. The tense-sign s of the s-aorist (chap. XI.) after a final consonant of a root before the initial consonant of an ending: thus, achānttai (and for this, by 231, achānta) for achāntsta, çūpta for çūpsta, tāptam for tūpstam.

c. Other instances are only sporadic: thus, the compound rkthā (rc + sthā: PB.); the collocations tasmāt tute (for stute) and puroruk tuta- (for stuta-: K.).

Strengthening and Weakening Processes.

234. Under this head, we take up first the changes that affect vowels, and then those that affect consonants — adding,

for convenience's sake, in each case, a brief notice of the vowel and consonant elements that have come to bear the apparent office of connectives.

Guna and Vrddhi.

235. The so-called *guna* and *vrddhi*-changes are the most regular and frequent of vowel-changes, being of constant occurrence both in inflection and in derivation.

A guna-vowel differs from the corresponding simple vowel by a prefixed *a*-element, which is combined with the other according to the usual rules; a *vrddhi*-vowel, by the further prefixion of *a* to the guna-vowel. Thus, of ξi or $\xi \bar{i}$ the corresponding guna is $(a+i=) \bar{\zeta} e$; the corresponding *orddhi* is $(a+e=) \bar{\zeta} \bar{a}i$. But in all gunating processes Ξa remains unchanged — or, as it is sometimes expressed, Ξa is its own guna; $\Xi \Pi \bar{a}$, of course, remains unchanged for both guna and *orddhi*.

236. The series of corresponding degrees is then as follows:

simple vowel	a ā	i ī	น นิ	r	ļ
Guna	a ā	e	0	ar	al
Vrddhi	ā	āi	āu	ār	

There is nowhere any occurrence of $\bar{\tau}$ in a situation to undergo either guna or vrddhi-change; nor does l (26) ever suffer change to vrddhi. Theoretically, $\bar{\tau}$ would have the same changes as r; and the vrddhi of l would be $\bar{u}l$.

237. The historical relations of the members of each vowel-series are still matters of some difference of opinion. From the special point of view of the Sanskrit, the simple vowels wear the aspect of being in general the original or fundamental ones, and the others of being products of their increment or strengthening, in two several degrees — so that the rules of formation direct a, i, u, r, l to be raised to guna or vrddhi respectively, under specified conditions. But r is so clearly seen to come by abbreviation or weakening from an earlier ar (or ra) that many European grammarians prefer to treat the guna-form as the original and the other as the derivative. Thus, for example: instead of assuming certain roots to be bhr and vrdh, and making from them bharati and vardhati, and bhrta and rrddha, by the same rules which frem $bh\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{i}$ and from budh and cit form bhavati and nayati. bodhati and cetati. $bh\bar{u}ta$ and $n\bar{i}ta$. budha and citta — they assume

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bhar and vardh to be the roots, and give the rules of formation for them in reverse. Both methods have their advantages, and the question between them is one of minor consequence, which may fairly be settled by considerations of convenience. Mainly from such considerations, the r-form is generally assumed in this work, though not without constant recognition of the other.

238. The guma-increment is an Indo-European phenomenon, and is in many cases seen to occur in connection with an accent on the increased syllable. It is found:

a. In root-syllables: either in inflection, as dvésti from V dvis, $d\delta hmi$ from V dwh; or in derivation, as dvésta, $d\delta has$, dvéstum, $d\delta gdhum$.

b. In formative elements: either conjugational class-signs, as *tanómi* from *tanu*; or suffixes of derivation, in further derivation or in inflection, as *agnáye* from *agni*, *bhānávas* from *bhānú*, *pitáram* from *pitŕ*, *hantavyà* from *hántu*.

239. The *rrddhi*-increment is specifically Indian (being unshared, save in a few doubtful cases, even by the Zend), and its occurrence is more infrequent and irregular. It is found :

a. In root and suffix-syllables, instead of guna: thus, stāúti from γ stu, sákhāyam from sákhi, ánāişam from γ nī, ákārşam and kāráyati and kāryà from γ kr (or kar), dātáram from dātŕ.

b. Especially often, in initial syllables in secondary derivation: thus, mānasá from mánas, vāidyutá from vidyút, bhāumá from bhúmi, párthiva from prthiví.

But

240. The guna-increment does not usually take place in a heavy syllable ending with a consonant: that is to say, the rules prescribing guna in processes of derivation and inflection do not apply to a short vowel which is "long by position", nor to a long vowel unless it be final: thus, cétati from V cit, but nindati from V nind; náyati from $V/n\bar{n}$, but jivati from $V_j\bar{v}v$.

The vrddhi-increment is not liable to this restriction.

Exceptions to the rule are occasionally met with: thus, didéva from \sqrt{div} ; hédus from \sqrt{hid} ; ohate from \sqrt{uh} .

And a few cases occur of prolongation instead of increment: thus, $d\bar{u}_{z}dy_{ati}$ from γdus , $g\dot{u}hati$ from γguh .

The changes of r (more original ar or ra) are so various as to call for further description.

241. The increments of r are sometimes ra and $r\bar{a}$, instead of ar and $\bar{a}r$: namely, especially, where by such reversal a difficult combination of consonants is avoided: thus, from \sqrt{drc} , draksyami and ddraksam; but also prthú and prath, prch and prach, krpá and dkrapista.

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242. In a number of roots (about a dozen quotable ones) ending in r (for more original ar), the r exchanges both with ar. and, more irregularly, in a part of the forms, with ir — or also with ur (especially after a labial, in pr, mr, vr, sporadically in others): which ir and ur, again, are liable to prolongation into $\bar{v}r$ and $\bar{u}r$. Thus, for example, from tr (or tar), we have tarati, *titarti*, $tat\bar{a}ra$, $at\bar{a}risam$, by regular processes; but also tirati, firyati, $firtv\bar{a}$, -firya, firma, and even (V.) $tury\bar{a}ma$, $tutury\bar{a}t$, tar $tur\bar{a}ma$. The treatment of such roots has to be described in speaking of each formation.

For the purpose of artificially indicating this peculiarity of treatment, such roots are by the Hindu grammarians written with long \overline{r} , or with both r and \overline{r} : no \overline{r} actually appears anywhere among their forms.

The (quotable) \overline{r} -roots are 3kr 'strew', 1gr 'praise', 2gr 'swallow', 1jr 'wear out', tr, 1cr 'crush'*.

The (quotable) r and \bar{r} -roots are r, 1dr 'burst', 1pr 'fill', 2mr 'die', 2vr 'choose', str, hvr.

243. In a few cases, r comes from the contraction of other syllables than ar and ra: thus, in tria and triby a from ri; in grow from ru; in trea, even from rir (or ryr).

Vowel-lengthening.

244. Vowel-lengthening has regard especially to i and u, since the lengthening of a is in part (except where in evident analogy with that of i and u_j indistinguishable from its increment, and r is made long only in certain plural cases of stems in r (or ar: chap. V.). Lengthening is a much more irregular and sporadic change than increment, and its cases will in general be left to be pointed out in connection with the processes of inflection and derivation: a few only will be mentioned here.

245. a. Final radical i and u are especially liable to prolongation before y: as in passive and gerund and so on.

b. Final radical is and us (from r-roots: 242) are liable to prolongation before all consonants except those of personal endings: namely, before y and $tv\bar{u}$ and na: and in declension before bh and s (392). Radical is and us have the same prolongation in declension.

246. Compensatory lengthening, or absorption by a vowel of the time of a lost following consonant, is by no means common. Certain instances of it have been pointed out above (179, 198b, 199b, 222). Perhaps such cases as *pitā* for *pitars* and *dhanī* for *dhanins* (chap. V.) are to be classed here.

247. The final vowel of a former member of a compound is often made long, especially in the Veda. Prolongations of final a, and before v, are most

^{*} Numbers prefixed to roots denote the order in which, there being more than one of the same form, the root intended is given in the Petersburg lexicon.

frequent; but cases are found of every variety. Examples are devāvi, vayunāvíd, prāvies, stāvasu, indrāvant, sadanāsād, çatāmagha, vievānara, ekādaça; apījū, pariņāh, vīrūdh, tuvīmaghā, tvisīmant, cāktīvant; vasūjū, anūrūdh, sūmāya, purūvāsu.

248. In the Veda, the final vowel of a word — generally a, much less often i and u — is in a large number of cases prolonged. Usually the prolongation takes place where it is favored by the metre, but sometimes even where the metre opposes the change (for details, see APr. iii. 16 note, Benfey, Abh. Gött. Ges. xix.—xxi. [1874—6], and the various Prātiçākhyas).

Words of which the finals are thus treated are:

a. Particles: namely, áthā, ádhā, evá, utá, ghá, hā, ihá, ivā, cā, smā, angá, kílā, átrā, yátrā, tátrā, kútrā, anyátrā, ubhayátrā, adyá, áchā, ápā, prá; yádī, nahī, abhī; ū, tá, ná, sá, maksá.

b. Case-forms: especially instr. sing., as end, ténā, yénā, svénā, and others; rarely gen. sing., as asyā, hariņāsyā. Cases besides these are few: so simā (voc.); tanvi (loc.), and urú and (not rarely) purú.

c. Verb-forms ending in a, in great number and variety: thus (nearly in the order of their comparative frequency), 2d sing. impv. act., as pibā, syā, gamayā; — 2d pl. act. in ta and tha, as sthā, attā, bibhrtā, jayatā, çrņutā, anadatā, nayathā, jīvayathā (and one in tana: aviştanā); — 1st pl. act. in ma, as vidmā, risāmā, rdhyāmā, ruhemā, vanuyāmā, cakŗmā, marmrjmā; — 2d sing. impv. mid. in sva, as yukṣvā, īdiṣvā, dadhiṣvā, vahasvā; — 1st and 3d sing. perf. act., as vedā, viveçā, jagrabhā; 2d sing. perf. act., vetthā; — 2d pl. perf. act., anajā, cakrā. Of verb-forms ending in i, only the 2d sing. impv. act., as çrudhī, çrņuhī, dīdihī, jahī.

To these may be added the gerund in ya, as abhigúryā, ácyā.

Vowel-lightening.

249. The alteration of short a to an i or u-vowel in the formative processes of the language, except in r or ar roots (as explained above), is a sporadic phenomenon only.

250. But the lightening of a long \bar{a} especially to an *i*-vowel (as also its loss), is a frequent process: no other vowel is so unstable.

a. Of the class-sign $n\bar{a}$ (of the $k\bar{n}$ -class of verbs: chap. IX.), the \bar{a} is in "weak" forms changed to $\bar{\imath}$, and before vowel-endings dropped altogether. The final \bar{a} of one or two roots is treated in the same manner: thus $m\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$. And from some roots, \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$ or *i*-forms so interchange that it is difficult to classify them or to determine the true character of the root.

b. Radical \bar{a} is weakened to the semblance of the union-vowel *i* in certain verbal forms: as perfect dadima from $\gamma d\bar{a}$ etc.; sorist adhithās from $\gamma d\bar{a}$ etc.; present jahimas from $\gamma h\bar{a}$ etc.

c. Radical \bar{a} is shortened to the semblance of stem-a in a number of

reduplicated forms, as tistha, piba, dada, etc.: see chap. IX.; also in a few aorists, as ahvam, akhyam, etc.: see chap. XI.

d. Radical \bar{a} sometimes becomes e, especially before y: as, stheyāsam, deya.

251. Certain \bar{a} -roots, because of their peculiar exchanges with \bar{i} and *i*-forms, especially in forming the present stem, are given by the Hindu grammarians as roots ending in e or $\bar{a}i$ or o. Thus, from $2dh\bar{a}$ 'suck' (*dhe*) come the present *dháyati* and participle and gerund *dhītá*, *dhītvā*; the other forms are made from *dhā*, as *dadhus*, *adhāt*, *dhāyati*, *dhátave*, *dhāpayati*. From $2g\bar{a}$ 'sing' ($g\bar{a}i$) come the present $g\dot{a}yati$, the participle and gerund gītá and gītvā, and passive $g\bar{i}y$ ate, and the other forms from $g\bar{a}$. From $3d\bar{a}$ 'cut' (*do*) come the present *dyáti* and participle *ditá* or *diná*, and the other forms from *dā*. The irregularities of these roots will be treated below, under the various formations.

252. By a process of abbreviation essentially akin with that of ar or ra to r, the va (usually initial) of a number of roots becomes u, and the ya of a much smaller number becomes i, in certain verbal forms and derivatives. Thus, from vac come $uv\dot{a}ca$, $ucy\dot{a}sam$, $uktv\dot{a}$, $ukt\dot{a}$, $ukt\dot{a}$, $ukt\dot{a}$, etc.; from yaj come $iy\dot{a}ja$, $ijy\dot{a}sam$, $ijtv\dot{a}$, $ijt\dot{a}$, $ijt\dot{$

To this change is generally given by European grammarians the name of samprasūrana, by adaptation of a term used in the native grammar.

253. A short *a*, of root or ending, is not infrequently lost between consonants in a weakened syllable: thus, in verb-forms, ghnánti, ápaptum, jagmús, jajňús, ájňata; in noun-forms, rájňe, rájňe.

254. Union-vowels. All the simple vowels come to assume in certain cases the aspect of union-vowels, or insertions between root or stem and ending of inflection or of derivation.

That character belongs oftenest to *i*, which is very widely used: a. before the *s* of aorist and future and desiderative stems, as in $dj\bar{v}visam$, $j\bar{v}visydmi$, $jij\bar{v}vis\bar{q}mi$; b. in tense-inflection, especially perfect, as $jij\bar{v}vimd$; occasionally also present, as *dniti*. roditi; c. in derivation, as $j\bar{v}vitd$, khánitum, janit², rocisná, etc. etc.

Long \bar{i} is used sometimes instead of short: thus, *ágrahīşam*, *grahīşyāmi*; bravīti, vāvadīti; tarītⁱ, savītⁱ; it is also often introduced before s and t of the 2d and 3d sing. of verbs: thus, *ásīs*, *ásīt*.

For details respecting these, and the more irregular and sporadic occurrences of u and a-vowels in the same character, see below.

Nasal Increment.

255. Both in roots and in endings, a distinction of stronger and weaker forms is very often made by the presence or absence of a nasal element, mute or *anusvāra*, before a following consonant. In general, the stronger form is doubtless the more original; but in the present condition of the language, the nasal has come in great measure to seem, and to some extent also to be used, as an actually strengthening element, introduced under certain conditions in formative and inflective processes.

Examples are, of roots: ac and anc, grath and granth, vid and vind, duç and danç, sras and srans, din and dinh: of endings. bhúrantam and bhúratā, múnasī and múnānsi.

256. A final n, whether of stem or of root, is less stable than any other consonant, where a weaker form is called for: thus, from $r\dot{a}jan$ we have $r\dot{a}j\bar{a}$ and $r\dot{a}jabhis$, and in composition $r\bar{a}ja$; from dhanin, dhani and dhanibhis and dhani; from γ han we have hath \dot{a} and hat \dot{a} , etc. A final radical m (m does not occur as final of a stem) is sometimes treated in the same way: thus, from γ gam, gahi, gat \dot{a} , gat \dot{a} , gát \dot{a} .

257. Inserted n. On the other hand, the nasal n has come to be used with great — and, in the later history of the language, with increasing — frequency as a union-consonant, inserted between vowels: thus, from agní, agnínā and agnīnām; from mádhu, mádhunas, mádhunī, múdhūni; from çivá, çivána, çivánām.

258. Inserted y. After long \bar{u} , a y is not very infrequently found as apparently a mere union-consonant before another vowel: thus, in derivation, $y\bar{a}y(n)$, $svadh\bar{a}y(n)$, $dh\dot{a}yas$, $sth\dot{a}yuka$; in inflection, $\dot{a}dh\bar{a}yi$, $c\bar{a}y\dot{a}yati$, and perhaps $civ\dot{a}y\bar{a}s$ and $g\dot{a}yati$.

Reduplication.

259. Reduplication of a root (originating doubtless in its complete repetition) has come to be a method of radical increment or strengthening in various formative processes: namely,

a. in present-stem formation : as dádāmi, bibhármi ;

b. in a rist-stem formation : as ádidharam, ácucyavam;

c. in perfect-stem formation, almost universally : as tatàna, dadhāú, cakára;

d. in intensive and desiderative-stem formation, throughout: as jánghanti, jóhavīti, marmrjyáte, pipāsati, jighāisati;

e. in the formation of derivative noun-stems: as pápri, cárcara, sūsahi, cikitú, malimlucá.

Rules for the treatment of the reduplication in these several cases will be given in the proper connection below.

260. As, by reason of the strengthening and weakening changes indicated above, the same root or stem not seldom exhibits. in the processes of inflection and derivation, varieties of stronger and weaker form, the distinction and description of these varieties forms an important part of the subjects hereafter to be treated.

CHAPTER IV.

DECLENSION.

261. THE general subject of declension includes nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, all of which are inflected in essentially the same manner. But while the correspondence of nouns and adjectives is so close that they cannot well be separated in treatment, the pronouns, which exhibit many peculiarities, will be best dealt with in a separate chapter; and the words designating number, or numerals, also form a class peculiar enough to require to be presented by themselves.

262. Declensional forms show primarily case and numher; but they also indicate gender — since, though the distinctions of gender are made partly in the stem itself. they also appear, to no inconsiderable extent, in the changes of inflection.

263. Gender. The genders are three, namely masculine, feminine, and neuter, as in the other older Indo-European languages; and they follow in general the same laws of distribution as, for example, in Greek and Latin.

The only words which show no sign of gender-distinction are the personal pronouns of the first and second person 'along with the numerals above 'four': chap. VI.'. §

264. Number. The numbers are three — singular. dual, and plural.

A few words are used only in the plural: as daras, 'wife', ipas. 'water'; the numeral dra, 'two', is dual only; and, as in other languages. many words are, by the nature of their use, found to occur only in the singular.

265. As to the uses of the numbers, it needs only to be remarked that the dual is found without the addition of the numeral dra, 'two', wherever the duality of the objects spoken of is a thing well understood: thus, acrināu, 'the two horsemen' Acvins', indrasya háre, 'Indra's two bays'; devadattasya hastau, 'Devadatta's two hands' but devadattasya drār acrāu stah, 'Devadatta has two horses'.

266. Case. The cases are (including the vocative) eight: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, and vocative.

The order in which they are here mentioned is that established for them by the Hindu grammarians, and accepted from these by Western scholars. The Hindu names of the cases are founded on this order: the nominative is called *prathamā*, 'first', the accusative dvitīyā, 'second', the genitive sasthā, 'sixth' (sc. vibhakti, 'division', i. e. 'case'), etc. The object sought in the arrangement is simply to set next to one another those cases which are to a greater or less extent, in one or another number, identical in form; and, putting the nominative first, as leading case, there is no other order by which that object could be attained. The vocative is not considered and named by the native grammarians as a case like the rest; in this work, it will be given in the singular (where alone it is ever distinguished from the nominative otherwise than by accent) at the end of the series of cases.

A brief compendious statement of the uses of the cases is given in the following paragraphs:

267. Uses of the Nominative. The nominative is the case of the subject of the sentence, and of any word qualifying the subject, whether attributively, in apposition, or as predicate.

268. As somewhat peculiar constructions may be mentioned a predicate nominative with manye etc., 'think one's self to be', and with bruve etc., 'call one's self: thus, sómam manyate papiwin (RV.), 'he thinks he has been drinking soma'; sá manyeta purāņavít (AV.), 'he may regard himself as wise in ancient things'; fndro brāhmaņó brúvānaḥ (TS.), 'Indra calling himself (pretending to be) a Brahman'; — and with rūpánh kṛ: thus, kṛṣṇó rūpánh kṛtvấ (TS.), 'taking on a black form' (making shape for himself as one that is black;.

269. Uses of the Accusative. The accusative is especially the case of the direct object of a transitive verb, and of any word qualifying that object, as attribute or appositive or objective predicate. The construction of the verb is shared, of course, by its participles and infinitives; but also, in Sanskrit, by a number of other derivatives, having a more or less participial or infinitival character, and even sometimes by nouns and adjectives. A few prepositions are accompanied by the accusative. As more indirect object, the accusative is construed especially with verbs of approach and address. It is found used yet more adverbially as adjunct of place or time or manner; and a host of adverbs are accusative cases in form. Two accusatives are often found as objects of the same verb.

270. The use of the accusative as direct object of a transitive verb Whitney, Grammar. 6

and of its infinitives and participles hardly needs illustration: an example or two are: agnim ide, 'I praise Agni'; námo bhárantah, 'bringing homage'; bháyo dátum arhasi, 'thou shouldst give more'. Of predicate words qualifying the object, an example is tâm ugrân krnomi tâm brâhmānam (RV.), 'him I make formidable, him a priest'.

271. Of verbal derivatives having so far a participial character that they share the construction of the verb, the variety is considerable: thus,

a. Derivatives in u from desiderative stems have wholly the character of present participles: thus, damayantim abhīpsavah (MBh.), 'desiring to win Damayanti': $r\bar{u}j\bar{u}nam$ didrksuh (MBh.), 'desiring to see the king'.

b. So-called primary derivatives in in have the same character: thus, mám kāmínī (AV.), 'loving me'; enam abhibhāsiņī (MBh.), 'addressing him'.

c. Derivatives in aka, in the later language: as, bhavantam ubhivādakah (MBh.), 'intending to salute you'.

d. Nouns in *tar*, very frequently in the older language, and as periphrastic future forms (chap. XII.) in the later: thus, hántā yó vritáin sánito 'tá vájam dátā magháni (RV.), 'who slayeth the dragon, winneth booty, bestoweth largesses'.

e. The root itself, in the older language, used with the value of a **present** participle at the end of a compound: thus, yaim yajñám paribhúr ási (RV.), 'what offering thou surroundest (protectest)'.

f. The derivative in *i* from the (especially the reduplicated) root, in the older language: thus, babbrir vájram papth sómam dadir $g\dot{a}h$ (RV.,, 'bearing the thunderbolt, drinking the soma, bestowing kine'.

g. Derivatives in uka, very frequently in the Brāhmaņa language: thus, vatsáń; cu ghátuko výkaņ (AV.), 'and the wolf destroys his calves'; vćduko váso bhavati (TS.), 'he wins a garment'.

h. Other cases are more sporadic: thus, derivatives in a, as indro $dr dh^{\frac{1}{2}}$ cid $\bar{a}rujdh$ (RV.), 'Indra breaks up even what is fast'; in atnu, as $v\bar{i}du$ cid $\bar{a}rujatnubhh$ (RV.), 'with the breakers of whatever is strong'; in ana, as tanh nivūraņe (MBh.), 'in restraining him'.

272. Examples of an accu ative with an ordinary noun or adjective are only occasional: anuvrata is so used: thus, damayantim anuvrata, (MBb.), 'devoted to Damayanti'; and $k\bar{a}ma$, as $m\dot{a}m$ kdmena (AV.), 'through loving me'.

273. The direct construction of cases with prepositions is comparatively restricted in Sanskrit (see the subject of Prepositions, chap. XVI.). With the accusative is oftenest found *prati*, 'opposite to, in reference to', etc.; also anu, 'after, in the course of; antar or antarā, 'between'; rarely ati, 'across'; abhi, 'against, to'; and others. Case-forms which have assumed a prepositional value are also often used with the accusative: as antarena, uttarena, daksinena, avarena, ūrdhvam, *rte*.

274. The accusative is very often found also as object of verbs which in the related languages are not transitive.

a. It stands especially as the goal of motion, with verbs of going, bring-

ing, sending, and the like: thus, vidarbhān agaman (MBh.), 'they went to Vidarbha'; divam yayuh (MBh.), 'they went to heaven'; vanagulmān dhāvantah (MBh.), 'running to woods and bushes'; ápo dívam úd vahanti (AV.), 'they carry up waters to the sky'; deván yaje (AV.), 'I make offering to the gods'.

With verbs meaning 'go', this is an extremely common construction; and the use of such a verb with an abstract noun makes peculiar phrases of 'becoming': thus, samatām eti, 'he goes to equality' (i. e. 'becomes equal'); sa gached badhyatām mama (MBh.), 'he shall become liable to be slain by me'; sa pañcatvam āgataḥ (H.), 'he was resolved into the five elements' (underwent dissolution, died).

b. Verbs of speaking follow the same rule: thus, tam abravit, 'he said to him'; prākroçad uccāir nāişadham (MBh.), 'she cried out loudly to the Nishadhan'; yis tvo 'váca (AV.), 'who spoke to thee'.

275. The cognate accusative. or accusative of the implied object, is, of course, found also in Sanskrit: as, *capatham*, *cepe*, 'he swore an oath'.

276. As a yet more adverbial adjunct to a verb, the accusative is used to denote space traversed: as *yojanaçatam gantum* (MBh.), 'to go a hundred leagues'; much more often, duration of time: as *tisró rátrīr dīksitāļ, syāt* (TS.), 'let him be consecrated three nights'; sā samvatsarām ūrdhvo 'tisthat (AV.), 'he stood upright for a year'; gatvā trīn ahorātrān (MBh.), 'having travelled three complete days'. But the point of place or time also is occasionally found represented by the accusative (instead of the locative).

The same case is used adverbially to express manner or accompanying circumstance; and many adverbs have the accusative form (see Adverbs, chap. XVI.): this is especially true of compound words, even to such an extent as to form a class of adverbial compounds (below: chap. XVIII.).

277. The accusative is freely used along with other cases as objects of the same verb, wherever the sense admits. And when it is usable with a verb in two different constructions, the verb may take two accusatives, one in each construction. Thus, especially, verbs of having recourse, appealing, asking: as, $tv\bar{a}m$ vayam curanam gatāņ (MBh.), 'we have resorted to thee for succor'; apó yācāmi bhesajám (RV.), 'I ask the waters for medicine'; — and verbs of sending, bringing, imparting, saying: as, gurutvam naram nayanti (H.), 'conduct a man to respectability'; tām idam abravīt (MBh.), 'she said this to her'; — other less usual cases are, for example, tām visām evā 'dhok (AV.], 'he milked from her poison'; jitvā rājyam nalam (MBh.), 'having won the kingdom from (i. e. by beating) Nala'.

A causative verb, naturally, takes a double accusative: thus, tām grham praveçayati, 'he makes her enter the house'.

278. Uses of the Instrumental. The instrumental is originally the 'with'-case: it denotes adjacency, accompaniment, association — passing over into the expression of means and instrument (by the same transfer of meaning which appears in our prepositions with and by).

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Nearly all the uses of the case are readily deducible from this fundamental meaning, and show nothing anomalous or difficult.

279. The instrumental is often used to signify accompaniment: thus, ugasfe develokie i gamat (RV.), 'may Agni come hither along with the gods'; developmenta subayena kea yasyasi (MBh.), 'whither wilt thou go, with Dvāpars for companion?' kathayan nāisadhena (MBh.), 'talking with the Nishadhan'. But the relation of simple accompaniment is more often helped to plainer expression by prepositions.

280. The instrumental of means or instrument or agent is yet more frequent: thus, bhadráin kárnebhih grnuyāma (RV.), 'may we hear with our ears what is propitious'; gastrena nidhanam (MBh.), 'death by the sword': heeit padbhyānh hatā yajāih (MBh.), 'some were slain by the elephants with their feet'. And this passes easily over into the expression of occasion or reason (for which the ablative is more frequent): thus, krpayā, 'through pity'; tena sutyena, 'by reason of that truth'.

981. Of special applications, the following may be noticed:

a. Accordance, equality, likeness, and the like: thus, samain jyótih saryona (AV.', 'a brightness equal with the sun'; yeshām na pādarajasā indyna (MHh.', 'to the dust of whose feet I am not equal'.

b. Price (by which obtained): thus, darábhir kränäti dhenúbhih (RV.), 'he buya with ten kine': gueinh sahasrena eikrinite, 'he sells for a thousand eattle'.

o. Medium, also space or distance or road, traversed; and hence also time passed through thus, udmi nd micum anayanta (RV., 'they led [him] as it were a ship through the water'; & 'Ai yūtam pathfbhir devayānaih (RV.), 'come hither by god-travelled paths'; jaymur vihūyasū (MBh.), 'they went off through the sir' vudarbhān yātum ichāmy ekūhnā (MBh.). 'I wish to go to Vidarbha in the course of one day', kiyatū kūlena pradhāmatām labhante (H.), 'in how hung time do they obtain chief rank?' But the expression of 'within the anayo of', for thue, is also sometimes made by the accusative or locative.

(1. The part of the body on ,or by which anything is borne is usually expressed by the instrumental. as, kukkuruh skundheno Ayate (H.), 'a dog is partial on the shoulder; and this construction is extended to such cases as publicit Ayhum (H.), 'put on ,i, v, so as to be carried by a balance'.

WMM. The construction of a passive verb (or participle) with an instrumental of the agent is common from the earliest period, and becomes doubled have an later, the passive participle with instrumental taking to the small extent the place of an active verb with its subject. Thus, yaména double (HV', 'altern by Tama'; yaména' idyak (RV.', 'to be praised by sages'; such farme endine endine on (H.', 'by the hunter a net [was] spread'; teno them. "By him (it was) said'; much yaménayam (H.', - 'I shall go'.

The second allows at a causative verb is cometimes put in the instrumental lestent of the accusative, as, putsible pipetin khidayati, the causes the cabus to be paten by the birds'.

will Many instrumental constructions are such as call in translation for

'n,

other prepositions than 'with' or 'by'; yet the true instrumental relation is usually to be traced, especially if the etymological sense of the words be carefully considered.

More anomalously, however, the instrumental is used interchangeably with the ablative with words signifying separation: thus, vatsāfr víyutā, (RV.), 'separated from their calves'; má 'hám ātmánā ví rādhişi (AV.), 'let me not be severed from the breath of life'; sa tayā vyayujyata (MBh.), 'he was parted from her' (compare English parted with).

284. The prepositions taking the instrumental are those signifying 'with' and the like: thus, saha, with the adverbial words containing sa as an element, as sūkam, sūrdham, saratham; — and, in general, a word compounded with sa, sam, saha takes an instrumental as its regular and natural complement.

But also the preposition $vin\bar{a}$, 'without' (along with the compounds of vi spoken of in the preceding paragraph), takes sometimes the instrumental.

285. Uses of the Dative. The dative is the case of the indirect object — of that toward or in the direction of or in order to or for which anything is or is done (either intransitively or to a direct object).

In more physical connections, the uses of the dative approach those of the accusative (the more proper 'to'-case), and the two are sometimes interchangeable; but the general value of the dative as the 'for'-case is almost everywhere distinctly to be traced.

286. Thus, the dative is used with

a. Words signifying give, share out, assign, and the like: thus, yo ná dádāti sákhye (RV.), 'who gives not to a friend'; yáchā 'smāi cárma (RV.), 'bestow upon him protection'.

b. Words signifying show, announce, declare, and the like: thus, $\bar{w}rr$ ebhyo abhavat súryah (RV.), 'the sun was manifested to them'; *rtuparnam* bhīmāya pratyavedayan (MBh.), 'they announced Rituparna to Bhima'; tebhyah pratijācīya (MBh.), 'having promised to them'.

c. Words signifying give attention, have a regard or feeling. and the like: thus, niveçūya mano dudhuh (MBh.), 'they set their minds upon encamping'; māté 'va putrébhyo mrda (AV.), 'be gracious as a mother to her sons'; kim asmábhyam hrpise (RV.), 'why art thou angry at us?'

d. Words signifying inclination, obeisance, and the like: thus, máhyam numuntām pradiçaç cátasrah (RV.), 'let the four quarters bow themselves to me'; devebhyo namaskriya (MBb.), 'having paid homage to the gods'.

e. Words signifying hurling or casting: as yena $d\bar{u}d\bar{t}ce$ ásyasi (AV.), 'with which thou hurlest at the impious'.

In some of these constructions the genitive and locative are also used: see below.

287. In its more distinctive sense, as signifying for, for the benefit of, with reference to, and the like, the dative is used freely, and in a great variety of constructions. And this use passes over into that of the dative of

end or purpose, which is extremely common. Thus, four known disanaya (AV.), 'making an arrow for hurling'; grhndmi te saubhagatváya hástam (RV.), 'I take thy hand in order to happiness'; rastráya máhyam badhyatām sapátnebhyah parābháve (AV.), 'be it bound on in order to royalty for me, in order to destruction for my enemies'. Such a dative is much used predicatively (and oftenest with the copula omitted), in the sense of 'makes for', 'tends toward'; also 'is intended for', and so 'must'; or 'is liable to', and so 'can'. Thus, upadeço mūrkhānām prakopāya na cāntaye (H.), 'good counsel [tends] to the exasperation, not the conciliation, of fools'; sa ca tasyāh samitosāya nā 'bhavat (H.), 'and he was not to her satisfaction'; sugopá asi ná dábhāya (RV.), thou art a good herdsman, not one for cheating' (i. e. not to be cheated).

These uses of the dative are in the older language especially illustrated by the dative infinitives, for which see chap. XIII.

288. The dative is not used with prepositions.

289. Uses of the Ablative. The ablative is the 'from'case, in the various senses of that preposition: it is used to express removal, separation, distinction, issue, and the like.

290. The ablative is used where expulsion, removal, distinction, release, protection, and other kindred relations are expressed: thus, té sedhanti pathó výkam (AV.), 'they drive away the wolf from the path'; má prá gāma patháh. (RV.), 'may we not go away from the path': āré asmád astu hetíh (AV.), 'far from us be your missile'; pātám no výkāt (RV.), 'save us from the wolf'.

291. The ablative is used where procedure or issue from something as from a source or starting-point is signified: thus, *cukrá krsnád ajanista* (RV.), 'the bright one has been born from the black one'; *lobhāt krodhah* prabhavati (MBh.), 'passion arises from greed'; *vátāt te prānám avidam* (AV.), 'I have won thy life-breath from the wind'; *yé prácyā diçó abhidásanty asmán* (AV.), 'who attack us from the eastern quarter'; *tac chrutvā sakhīgaņāt* (MBh.), 'having heard that from the troop of friends'; *vāyur antarikṣād abhāṣata* (MBh.), 'the wind spoke from the sky'.

Hence also, procedure as from a cause or occasion is signified by the ablative: this is especially frequent in the later language, and in technical phraseology is a standing construction; it borders on instrumental constructions. Thus, vájrasya cúsnād dadāra (RV.), 'from (by reason of; the fury of the thunderbolt he burst asunder'; yasya dandabhayāt sarve dharmam anurudhyanti (MBh.), 'from fear of whose rod all are constant to duty'; akāramicritatvād ekārasya (Tribh.), 'because e contains an element of a'.

Perhaps by a further modification of this construction (the effect following the cause), the ablative also in technical language signifies 'after': thus, sakārāt, 'after s'.

292. One or two special applications of the ablative construction are to be noticed:

a. The ablative with words implying that (terrillas recoil from): thus,



tásyā jātáyāh sárvam abibhet (AV.), 'everything was afraid of her at her birth'; yásmād réjanta krstáyah (RV.), 'at whom mortals tremble'; yuşmád bhiyá (RV.), 'through fear of you'.

b. The ablative of comparison (distinction from): thus, $pr\dot{a}$ ririce divá indrah prthivyáh (RV.), 'Indra is greater than the heaven and the earth'. With a comparative (or other word used in a kindred way), the ablative is the regular and almost constant construction: thus, $sv\bar{a}d\delta h$ $sv\dot{a}d\bar{a}iyah$ (RV.), 'sweeter than the sweet'; kim tasmād duhkhataram (MBh.), 'what is more painful than that?' mitrād anyah (H.), 'any other than a friend'; nāişadhād anyam (MBh.), 'another than the Nishadhan'; sa matto mahān, 'he is greater than I'; tâd anyâtra tvân ní dadhmasi (AV.), 'we set this down elsewhere (away) from thee'; pūrvā víçvasmād bhūvanāt. (RV.), 'earlier than all beings'.

Occasionally, a partitive genitive is used with the comparative (as with the superlative); or an instrumental (of holding together the things compared).

293. The ablative is used with a variety of prepositions and words sharing a prepositional character; but all these have rather an adverbial value, as strengthening or defining the 'from'-relation, than any proper governing force. Thus:

a. In the Veda, ádhi and pári are much used as directing and strengthening adjuncts with the ablative: as, $j\bar{a}t\delta$ himávatas pári (AV.), 'born from the Himalaya (forth)'; samudrád ádhi jajñise (AV.), 'thou art born from the ocean'; cárantam pári tasthúsah (RV.), 'moving forth from that which stands fast'.

b. Also purá (and purás), in the sense of 'forward from', and hence 'before': as, purá járasah (RV.), 'before old age': and hence also, with words of protection and the like, 'from': as cacamānāh purá nidáh (RV.), 'setting in security from ill-will'.

c. Also \dot{a} , in the sense of 'hither from, all the way from': as, \dot{a} multiplication of the sense of 'hither from, all the way from': as, \dot{a} multiplication of the sense of 'hither from, all the way from': as, \dot{a} multiplication of 's the sense of 'hither from, and the construction means 'all the way to, until': as, \dot{a} 'syû yajñûsyo 'drah (VS.), 'until the end of this sacrifice'; \ddot{a} sodaçãt (M.), 'till the sixteenth year'; \ddot{a} pradānāt (Q.), 'until her marriage'.

d. Other prepositional constructions offer little subject for remark: $vin\bar{a}$ takes the ablative as well as instrumental (**284**); *rte* in the older language usually has the ablative, in the later the accusative.

294. Uses of the Genitive. The proper value of the genitive is adjectival; it belongs to and qualifies a noun, designating something relating to the latter in a manner which the nature of the case, or the connection, defines more nearly. Other genitive constructions, with adjective or verb or preposition, appear to arise out of this by a more or less distinctly traceable connection.

The use of the genitive has become much extended, espe-

cially in the later language, by attribution of a noun-character to the adjective, and by pregnant verbal construction, so that it often bears the aspect of being a substitute for other cases — as dative, instrumental, locative.

295. The genitive in its normal adjective construction is classifiable into the usual varieties, as: genitive of possession or appurtenance, including the complement of implied relation — this is, as elsewhere, the commonest of all; the so-called partitive genitive; the subjective and objective genitives; and so on. Genitives of appellation ('city of Rome'), material, and characteristic ('man of honor'), do not occur. Examples are: *indrasya vájrah*, 'Indra's thunderbolt'; *pitā putrāņām*, 'father of sons'; *putrah pituh*, 'son of the father'; *pituh kāmah putrasya*, 'the father's love of the son'; *ke nah*, 'which of us'; *catam dāsīnām*, 'a hundred female slaves'.

The expression of possession etc. on the part of pronouns is made almost entirely by the genitive case. and not by a derived possessive adjective (516).

296. The genitive is dependent on an adjective:

a. In part, by a construction similar to that of verbs which take a genitive object: thus, *abhijñā rājadharmāņām*, 'understanding the duties of a king'.

b. In great part, by a transfer of the possessive genitive from noun to adjective, the adjective being treated as if it had noun-value: thus, tasya samah or anurūpah or sadrcah, 'resembling him' (i. e. his like); tasya priyā, 'dear to him' (his dear one); tasyā 'viditam, 'unknown to him' (his unknown thing); hāvyac carsaņīnām (RV.), 'to be sacrificed to by mortals' (their object of sacrifice); īpsito naranārīņām (MBh.), 'desired of men and women' (their object of desire); yasya kasya prasūtah (H.), 'of whomsoever born' (his son).

c. The so-called partitive genitive with a superlative, or another word of similar value, is a matter of course: thus, cresthark virānām, 'best of heroes'; virúdhām virydvatī (AV.), 'of plants the mighty (mightiest, one'.

d. Adjectives meaning 'capable', 'worthy', 'full', and a few others, take the genitive by a more original and proper right.

297. The genitive as object of a verb is:

a. A possessive genitive of the recipient, by pregnant construction, with verbs signifying give, impart, communicate, and the like: thus, varān pradāyā 'sya (MBh.), 'having bestowed gifts upon him' (made them his by bestowal); rājāo niveditam (H.), 'it was made known to the king' (made his by knowledge).

This construction, by which the genitive becomes substitute for a dative or locative, abounds in the later language, and is extended sometimes to problematic and difficult cases.

b. A (in most cases, probably) partitive genitive, as a less complete or less absolute object than an accusative: thus, with verbs meaning partake (eat, drink, etc.), as $piba \ sut{asya}$ (AV.). 'drink (of) the Soma': madhwah $p\bar{a}yaya$ (RV.). 'cause to drink the sweet draught': — with verbs meaning

impart (of the thing imparted) etc., as $d\acute{a}dita$ no am'_{tasya} (RV.), 'bestow upon us immortality'; — with verbs meaning enjoy, be satisfied or filled with: as mátsy ándhasah (RV.), 'do thou enjoy the juice'; — with verbs meaning to perceive, note, care for, regard with feelings of various kinds: as, vásisthasya stuvatá indro açrot (RV.), Indra listened to Vasishtha who was praising him'; yáthā máma smárāt (AV.), 'that he may think of me'; tasya cukopa (MBh.), 'he was angry at him'; bibhīmas tava (MBh.), 'we are afraid of thee'.

c. A genitive of more doubtful character, with verbs meaning to rule or have authority, as *tvám īçişe vásūnām* (RV.), 'thou art lord of good things'; *yáthā 'hám eşām virājāni* (AV.), 'that I may rule over them'; with verbs meaning throw at, injure, as yás ta ásyat (AV.), 'whoever hurled at thee'; — and with some others.

298. A genitive in its usual possessive sense is often found as predicate, and not seldom with the copula omitted: thus, yáthá 'so máma kévalah (AV.), 'that thou mayest be wholly mine'; sarvāh sampattayas tasya samitustam yasya mānasam (H.), 'all good fortunes are his who has a contented mind'.

299. The prepositional constructions of the genitive are for the most part with such prepositions as are really noun-cases, and have the government of such: thus, agre, arthe, krie, and the like; also with other prepositional words which, in the general looseness of use of the genitive, have become assimilated to these. A few more real prepositions take the genitive: either usually, like updri, 'above', or occasionally, like adhás, antár, dti.

A genitive is used in the older language with certain adverbs of time: thus, sakid áhnah (RV.), 'once a day'; trih samvatsarasya, 'thrice a year'; idinim áhnah (RV.), 'at this time of the day'.

300. The genitive is used adverbially hardly at all; a few genitives of time occur in the older language: as *aktos*, 'by night', *vastos*, 'by day'.

A genitive of accompanying circumstance, with a qualifying word, is sometimes used absolutely, instead of a locative (**303** b); but this construction is unknown in the earlier language, and rare in the later. It is said by the grammarians to convey an implication of contempt: thus, $v\bar{a}idarbhy\bar{a}h$ preksamānāyāla paṇakālam amanyata (MBh.), 'he thought it a time for staking at play, while the Vidarbhan was looking on' (or, in spite of it); but it is found without any such implication: thus, samkhyūsyāmi phalāmy asya pacyatas te (MBh.), 'I will count its fruits while you look on'.

301. Uses of the Locative. The locative is properly the 'in'-case, the case expressing situation or location; but its sphere of use has been somewhat extended, so as to touch and overlap the boundaries of other cases, for which it seems to be a substitute.

Unimportant variations of the sense of 'in' are those of 'amid' or 'among', 'on', and 'at'. Of course, also, situation in time as well as place is indicated by the case; and it is applied to yet less physical relations, to sphere of action and feeling and knowledge, to state of things, to accompanying circumstance; and out of this last grows the frequent use of the locative as the case absolute.

Moreover, by a pregnant construction, the locative is used to denote the place of rest or cessation of action or motion ('into' or 'on to' instead of 'in' or 'on'; German *in* with accusative instead of dative: compare English *there* for *thither*).

302. The locative of situation in space hardly needs illustration. An example or two are: yé devá diví sthá (AV.), 'which of you gods are in heaven'; na devesu na yaksesu tādrk (MBh.), 'not among gods or Yakshas is such a one'; párvatasya presthé (RV.), 'on the ridge of the mountain'; vidáthe santu deváh (RV.), 'may the gods be at the assembly'; daçame pade (MBh.), 'at the tenth step'.

The locative of time indicates the point of time at which anything • takes place: thus, asyá usáso vyústāu (RV.), 'at the shining forth of this dawn'; etasminn eva kāle (MBh., 'at just that time'; dvādaçe varshe (MBh.). 'in the tenth year'. But the accusative is occasionally used in this sense, instead of the locative.

303. The locative of sphere or condition or circumstance is of very frequent use: thus, måde áhim indro jaghāna (RV.), 'in fury Indra slew the dragon'; mitrásya sumatāŭ syāma (RV.), 'may we be in the favor of Mitra'; te vacane ratam (MBh.), 'delighted in thy words'.

a. This construction is, on the one hand, generalized into an expression for 'in the matter or case of', or 'with reference to, respecting', and takes in the later language a very wide range, touching upon genitive and dative constructions: thus, ϵ' mam bhaja grame accesu gosu (AV.), 'be generous to him in retainers, in horses, in cattle'; tam Ω sakhitva imahe (RV.), 'him we beg for friendship'; nyāyo 'yam mayā drsta ānayane tava (MBh.), 'this means was devised by me for (with reference to) bringing thee hither'; satītve kāraņam' striyāh (H.), 'the cause of (in the case of) a woman's chastity'; na çakto 'bhavan nivāraņe (MBh.), 'he was not capable of preventing'.

b. On the other hand, the expression by the locative of a condition of things in which anything takes place, or of a conditioning or accompanying circumstance, passes over into a well-marked absolute construction, which is known even in the earliest stage of the language, but becomes more frequent later.

Transitional examples are: have two sars under the sum has risen), I call to there at the arisen sum (when the sum has risen), I call at midtime of the day'; aparadhe krie 'pi ca na me kopah (MBh.), 'and even in case of an offense committed, there is no anger on my part'.

The normal condition of the absolute construction is with a participle accompanying the noun: thus, stirné barhisi samidhāné agnāú (RV.), 'when the barhis is strewn and the fire kindled'; kāle cubhe prāpte (MBh.), 'a propitious time having arrived'; avasannāyām rātrāv astācalacūdāvalambini candramasi (H.), 'the night having drawn to a close, and the moon resting on the summit of the western mountain'.

But the noun may be wanting, or may be replaced by an adverbial substitute (as evam, tathā, iti): thus, asmābhih samanujñāte (MBh.), '[it] being fully assented to by us'; evam ukte kalinā (MBh.), 'it being thus spoken by Kali'; tathā 'nuṣṭhite (H.), 'it being thus accomplished'. So likewise the participle may be wanting (a copula sati or the like being to be supplied): thus, dūre bhaye, 'the cause of fear being remote'; while, on the other hand, the participle sati etc. is sometimes redundantly added to the other participle: thus, tathā kṛte sati, 'it being thus done'.

c. The locative is frequently used adverbially or prepositionally: thus, arthe or krite, 'in the matter of, for the sake of'.

304. The pregnant construction by which the locative comes to express the goal or object of motion or action or feeling exercised is not uncommonfrom the earliest time. It is by no means to be sharply distinguished from the ordinary construction; the two pass into one another, with a doubtful territory between. It occurs:

a. Especially with verbs, as of arriving, sending, placing, communicating, bestowing, and many others, in situations where an accusative or a dative (or a genitive, **297a**) might be looked for, and exchangeable with them: thus, sá id devésu gachati (RV.), 'that, truly, goes to (to be among) the gods'; *imám no yajñám amŕtesu dhehi* (RV.), 'set this offering of ours among the immortals'; yá äsiñcánti rásam óşadhīşu (AV), 'who pour in the juice into the plants' (or, the juice that is in the plants); mā prayache "çvare dhanam (H.), 'do not offer wealth to a lord'; papāta medinyām (MBh.), 'he fell to (so as to be upon) the earth'; skandhe krtvā (H.), 'putting on the shoulder'; samţcrutya pūrvam asmūsu (MBh.), 'having before promised us'.

b. Often also with nouns and adjectives in similar constructions (the instances not always easy to separate from those of the locative meaning 'with reference to': above, **303** a): thus, $day\bar{a}$ sarvabhūtesu, 'compassion toward all creatures'; anurūgam nāisudhe (MBh.), 'affection for the Nishadhan'; $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ samyagoritah sadā tvayi (MBh.), 'the king always behaved properly toward thee'.

305. The prepositions construed with the locative stand to it only in the relation of adverbial elements strengthening and directing its meaning.

In the Veda, such locative constructions are most frequent with \dot{a} and $\dot{a}dhi$: thus, mártyeşv \dot{a} , 'among mortale'; prthivydm $\dot{a}dhy$ $\dot{c}_{sa}dh\bar{u}_{h}$, 'the plants upon the earth'; téjo máyi dhārayd 'dhi (AV.), 'establish glory in me': — less often, $\dot{a}pa$ and dpi are used in the same way. In all ages of the language, antár, 'within, among', is construed with the locative.

306. Declensional forms are made by the addition of endings to the stem, or base of inflection.

The stem itself, however, in many words and classes

of words, is liable to variation, especially as assuming a stronger form in some cases and a weaker in others.

And between stem and ending are sometimes inserted connecting elements (or what, in the recorded condition of the language, have the aspect of being such).

Respecting all these points, the details of treatment, as exhibited by each class of words or by single words, will be given in the following chapters. Here, however, it is desirable also to give a brief general view of them.

307. Endings: Singular. In the nominative, the usual masc. and fem. ending is s — which, however, is wanting in derivative \bar{a} and \bar{i} -stems; it is also euphonically lost (150) by consonant-stems. Neuters in general have no ending, but show in this case the bare stem; *a*-stems alone add *m* (as in the accus. masc... Among the pronouns, *am* is a frequent masc. and fem. nom. ending (and is found even in du. and pl.); and neuters show a form in *d*.

In the accusative, *m* or *am* is the masc. and fem. ending — *am* being added after a consonant and *r* and after \overline{i} and \overline{u} in the radical division, and *m* elsewhere after vowels. The neuter accusative is like the nominative.

The instrumental ending for all genders alike is \bar{a} . With final *i* and *u*-vowels, the \bar{a} is variously combined, and in the older language it is sometimes lost by contraction with them. Stems in *a* make the case end in *ena* (sometimes *enā* in V.), and those in \bar{a} make it end in $ay\bar{a}$; but instances occur, in the early language, of immediate addition of \bar{a} to both *a* and \bar{a} .

The dative ending is in general e; and with it likewise the modes of combination of i and u final are various (and disappearance by contraction not unknown in the oldest language). The *a*-stems are quite irregular in this case, making it end in $\bar{a}ya$ — excepted is the pronominal element *sma*, which combines (apparently) with e to $sm\bar{a}i$. In the personal pronouns is found *bhyam* (or *hyam*).

A fuller ending $\overline{a}i$ (like gen.-abl. $\overline{a}s$ and loc. $\overline{a}m$: see below) belongs to feminine stems only. It is taken (with interposed y) by the great class of those in derivative \overline{a} ; also by those in derivative \overline{i} , and (as reckoned in the later language) in derivative \overline{u} . And later it is allowed to be taken by feminine stems in radical \overline{i} and \overline{u} , and even by those in i and u: such have it in the earliest language in only rare and exceptional instances.

The ablative has a special ending, d (or t), only in

a-stems, masc. and neut., the *a* being lengthened before it (except in the personal pronouns of 1st and 2d person; and these have the same ending in the pl., and even, in the old language, in the dual). Everywhere else, the ablative is identical with the genitive.

The genitive of a-stems (and of one pronominal u-stem, amu) adds sya. Elsewhere, the usual abl.-gen. ending is as: but its irregularities of treatment in combination with a stemfinal are considerable. With i and u, it is either directly added (only in the old language), added with interposed n, or fused to es and os respectively. With r (or ar) it yields us (or ur : 169, end).

The fuller $\bar{a}s$ is taken by feminine stems precisely as $\bar{a}i$ is taken in the dative: see above.

The locative ending is *i* in consonant and *r* and *a*-stems (fusing with *a* to *e* in the latter). The *i* and *u*-stems (unless the final vowel is saved by an interposed *n*) make the case end in $\bar{a}u$; but the Veda has some relics or traces of the older forms ay-i [?] and av-i out of which this appears to have sprung. Vedic locatives from *i*-stems end also in \bar{a} and \bar{i} . The pronominal element *sma* makes the locative *smin*. Stems in *an* in the older language often lose the *i*, and use the bare stem as locative.

The ending $\bar{a}m$ is the locative correspondent to dat. $\bar{a}i$ and abl.-gen. $\bar{a}s$, and is taken under the same circumstances : see above.

The vocative (unless by accent: **314**) is distinguished from the nominative only in the singular, and not quite always there. In *a*-stems, it is the unaltered stem; and so also in most consonant-stems: but neuters in *an* and *in* may drop the *n*; and the oldest language has sometimes a vocative in *s* from stems in *nt* and *is*. Stems in *t* change this to *ar*. In masc. and fem. *i* and *u*-stems, the case ends respectively in *e* and *o*; in neuters, in the same or in *i* and *u*. Stems in \bar{a} change \bar{a} to *e*; derivative \bar{i} and \bar{u} are shortened; radical stems in long vowels use the nominative form.

308. Dual. The dual has — except so far as the vocative is sometimes distinguished from nom. and accus. by a difference of accent: **314** — only three case-forms: one for nom., accus., and voc.; one for instr., dat., and abl.; and one for gen. and loc. occasional confusion of the uses of the second and third is seen earlier.

But the pronouns of 1st and 2d person in the older language distinguish five dual cases : see 492.

The masc. and fem. ending for nom.-accus.-voc. is in the later language usually $\bar{a}u$; but instead of this the Veda has prevailingly \bar{a} . Stems in \bar{a} make the case end in e. Stems in iand u, masc. and fem., lengthen those vowels; and derivative \bar{i} in the Veda remains regularly unchanged, though later it adds $\bar{a}u$. The neuter ending is only \bar{i} ; with final a this combines to e.

The universal ending for the instr.-dat.-abl. is bhyam, before which final *a* is made long. In the Veda, it is often to be read as two syllables, bhiam.

The universal ending of gen.-loc. is os: before this, a and \bar{a} alike become e (ai).

309. Plural. In the nominative, the general masc. and fem. ending is as. The old language, however, often makes the case in $\bar{a}sas$ instead of $\bar{a}s$ from a-stems, and in a few examples also from \bar{a} -stems. From derivative \bar{i} -stems, $\bar{i}s$ instead of yas is the regular and usual Vedic form. Pronominal a-stems make the masc. nom. in e.

The neuter ending (which is accusative also) is in general i; and before this the final of a stem is apt to be strengthened, by prolongation of a vowel, or by insertion of a nasal, or by both. But in the Veda the hence resulting forms in $\bar{a}ni$, $\bar{n}ni$, $\bar{u}ni$ are frequently abbreviated by loss of the ni, and sometimes by further shortening of the preceding vowel.

The accusative ending is also as in consonant-stems and in the radical division of $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ -stems (and in the old language even elsewhere). Stems in short vowels lengthen those vowels and add in the masculine *n* (for *ns*, of which abundant traces remain), and in the feminine *s*. In the neuter, this case is like the nominative.

In the instrumental, the case-ending is everywhere bhis except in *a*-stems, where in the later language the case always ends in $\bar{a}is$, but in the earlier either in $\bar{a}is$ or the more regular *ebhis* ($\bar{a}bhis$ in the two personal pronouns; and the pronominal stem *a* [501] makes *ebhis* only?

The dative and ablative have in the plural the same form, with the ending *bhyas* (in Veda often *bhias*), before which only a is altered, becoming e. But the two personal pronouns distinguish the two cases, having for the ablative the singular ending (as above pointed out), and for the dative the peculiar *bhyam* (almost never in V. *bhiam*), which they extend also into the singular.

Of the genitive, the universal ending is $\bar{a}m$; which (except optionally after radical \bar{i} and \bar{u} , and in a few scattering Vedic instances) takes after final vowels an inserted consonant, s in the pronominal declension, n elsewhere; before n, a short vowel is lengthened; before s, a becomes e. In the Veda, it is very frequently to be pronounced in two syllables, as a-am.

The locative ending is su, without any exceptions, and the only change before it is that of a to e.

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The vocative, as in the dual, differs from the nominative only by its accent.

310. The normal scheme of endings, as recognized by the native grammarians (and conveniently to be assumed as the basis of special descriptions), is this:

	Singular. m.f. n.	Dual. m.f. n.	Plural. m.f. n.
Ν.	8 M	āu ī	as i
A .	am	ลิน จั	as i
I.	ā	bhyām	bhis
D.	е	bhyām	bhyas
Ab.	a8	bhyām	bhyas
G.	สร	08	ām
L.	i	08	84

It is taken in bulk by the consonantal stems, and by the radical division of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems; by other vowel-stems, with more or less considerable variations and modifications. The endings which have almost or quite unbroken range, through stems of all classes, are *bhyām* and *os* of the dual, and *bhis*, *bhyas*, $\bar{a}m$, and *su* of the plural.

811. Variation of Stem. By far the most important matter under this head is the distinction made in large classes of words (chiefly those ending in consonants) between strong and weak stem-forms — a distinction standing in evident connection with the phenomena of accent. In the nom. and accus. sing. and du. and the nom. pl. (the five cases whose endings are never accented: 816a. the stem often has a stronger or fuller form than in the rest: thus, for example: राजानम् rājān-am, राजानी rājān-āu, राजानस् rājān-as, against राज्ञा rājā-ā and राजभिम् rāja-bhis; or मक्तम् mahant-am and त्र्तम् tudant-am against मरुता mahat-a and तरता tudat-ā. These five, therefore, are called the cases with strong stem, or, briefly, the strong cases; and the rest are called the cases with weak stem, or the weak cases. And the weak cases, again, are in some classes of words to be distinguished into cases of weakest stem, or weakest cases. and cases of middle stem, or middle cases: the former having endings beginning with a vowel (instr. to loc. sing., gen.-loc. du., gen. pl.); the latter, with a consonant (inst.dat.-abl. du., instr., dat.-abl., and loc. pl.).

The class of strong cases, as above defined, belongs only to masculine and feminine stems. In neuter inflection, the only strong cases are the nom.-acc. pl.; while, in those stems that make a distinction of weakest and middle form, the nom.-acc. du. belong to the weakest class, and the same cases sing. to the middle: thus, for example, compare प्रत्यांच pratyanc-i, nom.-acc. pl. neut., and प्रत्यचम् pratyanc-as, nom. pl. masc.; प्रतीची pratic-i, nom.-acc. du. neut., and प्रतीचीम् pratic-os, gen.-loc. du.; प्रत्यक् pratyak, nom.-acc. sing. neut., and प्रत्यग्निम् pratyag-bhis, instr. pl.

Even in words which exhibit no variation of stem, it is often convenient to distinguish the same groups of cases by the names strong and weak and so on.

S12. Other variations concern chiefly the final vowel of a stem, and may be mainly left to be pointed out in detail below. Of consequence enough to mention here is only the *guna*-strengthening of a final i or u, which in the later language is always made before as of nom. pl. and e of dat. sing. in mass, and fem.; in the Veda, it does not always take place; nor is it forbidden in dat. sing. neut. also; and it is seen sometimes in loc. sing. Final r has *guna*-strengthening in loc. sing.

\$13. Insertions between Stem and Ending. After vowel-stems, an added n often makes its appearance before an ending. This appendage is of least questionable origin in nom.-acc. pl. neut., where the interchange in the old language of the forms of a and *i*-stems with those of an and *in*stems is pretty complete; and the *u*-stems follow their analogy. Elsewhere, it is most widely and firmly established in the gen. pl., where in the great mass of cases, and from the earliest period, the ending is virtually $n\bar{a}m$ after a vowel. In the *i* and *u*-stems of the later language, the instr. sing. of masc. and neut. is separated by its presence from the fem., and it is in the other weakest cases made a usual distinction of neuter forms from masculine; but the aspect of the matter in the Veda is very different; there the appearance of the *n* is everywhere sporadic; the neuter shows no special inclination to take it, and it is not excluded even from the feminine. In the ending *ena* from *a*-stems (later invariable, earlier predominating), its presence appears to have worked the most considerable transformation of original shape.

The place of *n* before gen. pl. $\bar{a}m$ is taken by s in pronominal a and \bar{a} -stems.

The y after \bar{a} before the endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, and $\bar{a}m$ is most probably an insertion, such as is made elsewhere (258).

ACCENT IN DECLENSION.

Accent in Declension.

314. As a rule without exception, the vocative, if accented at all, is accented on the first syllable.

And in the Veda (the case is a rare one), whenever a syllable written as one is to be pronounced as two by restoration of a semivowel to vowel form, the first element only has the vocative accent, and the syllable as written is circumflex (by 84 a): thus, $dy\bar{a}is$ (i. e. $di\bar{a}us$) when dissyllable, but $dy\bar{a}is$ when monosyllabic; $jy\bar{a}ke$ when for $ji\bar{a}ke$.

But the vocative is accented only when it stands at the beginning of a sentence — or, in verse, at the beginning also of a metrical division or $p\bar{a}da$; elsewhere it is accentless or enclitic: thus, *ágne yám yajňám paribhár ási* (RV.), 'O Agni! whatever offering thou protectest'; but *úpa tvā 'gna é 'masi* (RV.), 'unto thee, Agni, we come'.

A word qualifying a vocative — usually an adjective, but not seldom also a noun in the genitive (very rarely in any other case) — constitutes, so far as accent is concerned, a unity with it: thus, sâkhe vaso or vâso sakhe, 'excellent friend'; sâno sahasah or sâhasah sūno, 'oh son of might'; and sudītī sūno sahaso didīhi (RV.), 'with excellent brightness, son of might, shine forth'.

Two coördinate vocatives, whether noun or adjective, have usually the same accent; but the Vedic texts furnish not a few irregular exceptions to this rule.

For brevity, the vocative dual and plural will be given in the paradigms below along with the nominative, without taking the trouble to specify in each instance that, if the latter be accented elsewhere than on the first syllable, the accent of the vocative is different.

315. As regards the other cases, rules for change of accent in declension have to do only with monosyllables and with stems of more than one syllable which are accented on the final; for if a stem be accented on the penult, or any other syllable further back — as in sárpant, vári, bhágavant, sumánas, sahásravāja the accent remains upon that syllable through the whole inflection (except in the vocative, as explained in the preceding paragraph).

The only exceptions are a few numeral stems: see below, chap, VI.

316. Stems accented on the final (including monosyllables) are subject to variation of accent in declension chiefly in virtue of the fact that some of the endings have, while others have not, or have in less degree, a tendency to draw the accent forward upon themselves. Thus:

a. The endings of the nominative and accusative singular and dual and of the nominative plural have no tendency to take the accent away from the stem, and are therefore only accented when a final vowel of the stem and the vowel of the ending are blended together into a single vowel or diphthong. Thus, from dattá come dattāú (= dattá + ān) and dattás (= dattá + as); but from nadť come nadyāù (= nadť + āu) and nadyàs (= nadť + as).

Whitney, Grammar.

b. All the other endings sometimes take the accent; but those beginning with a vowel do so more readily than those beginning with a consonant. Thus, from minus come minut and minubits; from makint, however, come makati but makidbhis.

The general rules of accent, then, may be thus stated :

817. In the declension of monosyllabic stems, the accent falls upon the ending in all the weak cases without distinction of middle and weakest): thus, nāvā, nāubhyām. nāvām, nāusú; vāci, vāgbhis, vācām, rāksú.

But some monosyllable stems retain the accent throughout: thus, gobhis, glovinn, glovu. For such cases, see below, 350, 381 c, d, 375, 380, 427.

318. Of polysyllables ending in consonants, only a few shift the accent to the ending, and that in the weakest not the middle cases. Such are:

a. Present participles in ant or at: thus, from tudant, tudata and tudatos and tudathm; but tudathbyam and tudatsu.

b. A few adjectives having the form of such participles, as makatá, bykatás.

C. Bases of which the accented final loses its syllabic character by syncopation of the vowel: thus, majjūd, mūrdhné, dūmnús from majjún etc.: 423.

Other sporadic cases will be noticed under the different declensions.

Case forms used adverbially sometimes show a changed accent: see chap. XVI. (1110 ff.).

319. Of polysyllabic stems ending in accented short vowels, the final of the stem retains the accent if it retains its syllabic identity: thus, datténa and dattáya from dattá; agninā and agnáye from agni; and also dattébhyas, agnibhis, and so on. Otherwise. the accent is on the ending: and that, whether the final and the ending are combined into one, as in dattāis, dhenāú. agnin, dhenás, and so on; or whether the final is changed into a semivowel before the ending: thus, dhencá, pitrá.

But dm of the gen. pl. from stems in f and u and r may, and in the older language always does, take the accent, though separated by n from the stem: thus, agninám, dhenūnám, plíŗnám. In RV., even derivative i-stems show usually the same shift: thus, buhvinám. Of stems in u, only numerals (chap. VI.) follow this rule: thus, saptānām, daçānām.

320. Root-words in \bar{s} and \bar{u} as final members of compounds retain the accent throughout, not shifting it to any of the endings. And in the older language there are polysyllabic words in long final vowels which follow in this respect as in others the analogy of the root-declension below, 355 ff... Apart from these, the treatment of stems in derivative long vowels is, as regards accent, the same as of those in short vowels — save that the tone is not thrown forward upon the ending in gen. plural.

CHAPTER V.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

321. THE accordance in inflection of substantive and adjective stems is so complete that the two cannot be separated in treatment from one another.

They may be classified, for convenience of description, as follows:

I. Stems in $\exists a$;

II. Stems in z i and z u;

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III. Stems in \overline{a} , $\overline{\xi}$, and \overline{s} , \overline{u} : namely, A. radicalstems (and a few others inflected like them); B. derivative stems;

IV. Stems in Rr (or Rr ar);

V. Stems in consonants.

There is nothing absolute in this classification and arrangement; it is merely believed to be open to as few objections as any other. No general agreement has been reached among scholars as to the number and order of Sanskrit declensions. The stems in a are here treated first because of the great predominance of the class.

322. The division-line between substantive and adjective, always an uncertain one in early Indo-European language, is even more wavering in Sanskrit than elsewhere. There are, however, in all the declensions as divided above — unless we except the stems in r or ar — words which are distinctly adjectives; and, in general, they are inflected precisely like nounstems of the same final: only, among consonant-stems, there are certain sub-classes of adjective bases with peculiarities of inflection to which there is among nouns nothing corresponding. But there are also two considerable classes of adjective-compounds, requiring special notice; namely:

323. Compound adjectives having as final member a bare verbal root, with the value of a present participle: thus, su-diç, 'well-looking'; pra-búdh, 'foreknowing'; a-drúh, 'not hating'; vedavid, 'Veda-knowing'; vrira-hán, 'Vritra-slaying'; upastha-sád, 'sitting in the lap'. Every root is liable to be used in this way, and such compounds are not infrequent in all ages of the language : see chapter on Compounds, below (XVIII.).

This class is originally and essentially only a special class of compound adjectives, since in the earliest Veda the simple as well as the compounded root was sometimes used adjectively. But the compounded root was from the beginning much more often so used, and the later the more exclusively, so that practically the class is a separate and important one.

324. Compound adjectives having a noun as final member, but obtaining an adjective sense secondarily, by having the idea of 'possession' added, and being inflected as adjectives in the three genders. Thus, $praj\bar{a}k\bar{a}ma$, 'desire of progeny', becomes an adjective meaning 'desirous (i. e. having desire) of progeny'; sabhārya (sa + bhāryā), 'having one's wife along'; and so on.

In a few cases, also, the final noun is syntactically object of the preceding member: thus, atimūtra, 'immoderate' (ati mūtram, 'beyond measure'); yūvayúddveşas, 'driving away enemies'.

325. Hence, under each declension, we have to notice how a root or a noun-stem of that declension is inflected when final member of an adjective compound.

As to accent, it needs only to be remarked that a monosyllabic word ending a compound loses the peculiarity of monosyllabic accentuation, and does not throw the tone foward upon the ending.

Declension I.

Stems (masculine and neuter) in a.

826. This declension contains the majority of all the declined stems of the language.

Its endings deviate more widely than any others from the normal.

327. Endings: Singular. The nom. masc. has the normal ending s.

The acc. (masc. and nent.) adds m (not am); and this form has the office also of nom. neuter.

The instr. changes a to ena uniformly in the later language; and even in the oldest Vedic this is the predominant ending (in RV., eight ninths of all cases). Its final is in Vedic verse not infrequently made long (enā), where favored by the metre. But the normal ending \bar{a} — thus, yajād, suhávā, mahitvá (for yajāéna etc.) — is also not rare in the Veda.

The dat has $\bar{a}ya$ (as if by adding aya to a), alike in all ages of the language.

The abl. has t or more probably d: it is impossible from the evidence

of the Sanskrit to tell which is the original form of the ending), before which \bar{a} is made long: this ending is found in no other noun declension, but only in the personal pronouns (of all numbers).

The gen. has sya added to the final a; and this ending is also limited to *a*-stems (with the single exception of the pronoun *amúsya*: chap. VII.). Its final a is in only three cases made long in the Veda; and its y is vocalized (*asia*) almost as rarely.

The loc. ends in ϵ (as if by combining the normal ending i with the final of the stem), without exception.

The voc. is the bare stem.

328. Dual. The dual endings in general are the normal ones.

The nom., acc., and voc. masc. end in the later language always in $\bar{\alpha}u$. In the Veda, however, the usual ending is simple $\bar{\alpha}$ (in KV., in seven eighths of the occurrences). The same cases in the neut. end in e, which appears to be the result of fusion of the stem-final with the normal ending \bar{z} .

The instr., dat., and abl. have $bhy\bar{a}m$ (in only one or two Vedic instances resolved into $bhi\bar{a}m$), with the stem-flual lengthened to \bar{a} before it.

The gen. and loc. have a y inserted after the stem-final before os (or as if the a had been changed to e_i . In one or two (doubtful) Vedic instances (as also in the pronominal forms *enos* and *yos*), os is substituted for the final a.

329. Plural. The now. masc. has in the later language the normal ending as combined with the final a to $\bar{a}s$. But in the Veda the ending $\bar{a}sas$ instead is frequent (one third of the occurrences in RV., but only one twenty-fifth in the peculiar parts of AV.).

The acc. masc. ends in *ān* (for earlier *āns*, of which abundant traces are left in the Veda, and, under the disguise of apparent euphonic combination, even in the later language: see above, **208** ff.).

The nom. and acc. neut. have in the later language always the ending $\bar{a}ni$ (like the *an*-stems: see **421**; or else with *n* as in the gen. pl. before normal *i*). But in the Veda this ending alternates with simple \bar{a} (which in RV. is to $\bar{a}ni$ as three to two, in point of frequency; in AV., as three to four).

The instr. ends later always in $\bar{a}is$; but in the Veda is found abundantly the more normal form *ebhis* (in RV., nearly as frequent as $\bar{a}is$; in AV., only one fifth as frequent).

The dat. and abl. have *bhyus* as ending, with *e* instead of the final *a* before it (as in the Vedic instr. *ebhis*, the loc. pl., the gen. loc. du. [?], and the instr. sing.). The resolution into *ebhias* is not infrequent in the Veda.

The gen. ends in $\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, the final *a* being lengthened and having *n* inserted before the normal ending. The \bar{a} of the ending is not seldom (in less than half the instances) to be read as two syllables, aam: opinions are divided as to whether the resolution is historical or metrical only. A very small number (half-a-dozen) of examples of simple $\bar{a}m$ as ending instead of $\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ occur in RV.

The loc. ends in case — that is to say, with the normal ending, before which the stem-final is changed to e (with consequent change of s to e: 180).

Of accent in this declension, nothing requires to be said; the syllable accented in the stem retains its own accent throughout.

330. Examples of declension. As examples of the inflection of *a*-stems may be taken काम kāma, m., 'love'; देव devá, m., 'god'; आस्य āsyà, n., 'mouth'.

Sing	jular :		
N.	कामस्	देवम्	म्रास्यम्
	kāmas	devás	āsyàm `
A .	कामम्	देवम्	म्रास्यम्
	kåmam	decám	āsyàm
I.	कामेन	देवेन	म्रास्येन
	kämena	devéna	āsyèna
D.	कामाय	देवाय	म्रास्याय
	kā m āya	deráya	āsy àya
Ab.	कामात्	देवात्	म्रास्यात्
	kāmāl	devát	āsyāt 🗋
G.	कामस्य	देवस्य	म्रास्यस्य
	kā m asya	devásya	ā sy àsya
L.	कामे	देवे	म्रास्ये
	käme	devé	ā sy è
v .	काम	देवं	- स्रास्य
	kāma	déva	ћ зуа
Dual	1:		
N. A. V.	कामे।	देवी	म्रास्ये
	kāmāu	devāú	āsyè
I. D. Ab.	कामाभ्याम्	देवाभ्याम्	म्रास्याभ्याम्
	kamābhyām	devåbhyām	āsyābhyām`
G. L.	कामयोस्	देवयोस	म्रास्ययोम्
	kāmayos	deváyos	āsyàyos 🔪
Plura	al :		
N. V.	कामास्	देवास्	म्रास्यानि
	kāmās`	devās	äsydmi

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A .	कामान्	देवान्	म्रास्यानि
	kámān	dován	āsyàni
I.	कामेस्	देवीस्	म्रास्येस्
	kámāis	devāis	<i>āsyā</i> s
D. Ab.	नामेभ्यम्	देवेभ्यम्	द्यास्येभ्यम्
	kåmebhyas	devébhyas	āsyèbhyas
G.	कामानाम्	रेवानाम्	म्रास्यानाम्
	kámānām	devánām	āsyànām
L.	कामेषु	देवेषु	म्रास्येषु
	kámeşu	devésu	त्रमुहेझ्म

Examples of the peculiar Vedic forms are:

Sing.: instr. raváthenā, yajād (such genitive forms as áçvasiā are purely sporadic).

Du.: nom. etc. masc. devá; gen.-loc. pastyùs (stem pastyà).

Pl.: nom.-voc. masc. devásas; neut. yugá; instr. devébhis; gen. caráthām, devánaam.

331. Among nouns, there are no irregularities in this declension. For irregular numeral bases in a (or an), see the next chapter. For the irregularities of pronominal stems in a, which are more or less fully shared also by a few adjectives of pronominal kindred, see the chapter on Pronouns.

Adjectives.

332. Original adjectives in a are an exceedingly large class, probably the majority of all adjectives. There is, however, no such thing as a feminine stem in a; for the feminine, the a is changed to \bar{a} — or often, though far less often, to \bar{s} ; and its declension is then like that of $s\acute{en}\bar{a}$ or devi (365). An example of the complete declension of an adjective a-stem in the three genders will be given below (371).

333. There are no verbal roots ending in a. But a is sometimes substituted for the final \bar{a} of a root (and, more rarely, for final *an* or *am*), and it is then inflected like an ordinary adjective in a (see below, **354**).

334. A noun ending in a, when occurring as final member of an adjective compound, is inflected like an original adjective in a, making its feminine likewise in \bar{a} or \bar{i} .

On the other hand, a feminine noun ending in derivative \bar{a} shortens its final to a to form a masculine and neuter base.

Declension II.

Stems (of all genders) in i and u.

335. The stems in ξ *i* and $\exists u$ are inflected in so close accordance with one another that they cannot be divided into two separate declensions. They are of all the three genders, and tolerably numerous — those in ξ *i* more numerous than those in $\exists u$, especially in the feminine (there are more neuters in $\exists u$ than in ξ *i*.

The endings of this declension also differ frequently and widely from the normal, and the Vedic irregularities are numerous.

336. Endings: Singular. The nom. masc. and fem. adds to the stem the normal ending s. The nom. and acc. neut. is the bare stem, without ending. In the Veda, the final u of a few neuters is lengthened (**248** b): thus, $ur\acute{u}$, $pur\acute{u}$.

The acc. masc. and fem. adds m to the stem. Vedic forms in *iam* and *uam*, and, with n, *inam* and *unam*, are excessively rare, and doubtful.

The instr. fem. in the later language takes the normal ending $\bar{\alpha}$ simply, while the mass. and neut. insert *n* before it, making $in\bar{\alpha}$ and $un\bar{\alpha}$. But in the Veda, forms in $y\bar{\alpha}$ and $v\bar{\alpha}$ (or $i\bar{\alpha}$ and $u\bar{\alpha}$) are not infrequent in mass. and neut. also; while $in\bar{\alpha}$ is found, very rarely, as a fem. ending. Moreover, fem. $y\bar{\alpha}$ is often (in two thirds of the occurrences) contracted to $\bar{\imath}$; and this is even sometimes shortened to *i*. An adverbial instr. in $uy\dot{\alpha}$ from half-adozen stems in *u* occurs.

The dat. masc. and fem. gunates the final of the stem before the ending e, making aye and are. These are the prevailing endings in the Veda likewise; but the more normal ye and ve also occur; and the fem. has in this case, as in the instr., sometimes the contracted form \bar{i} . In the later language, the neuter is required in this, as in all the other "weakest" cases, to insert n before the normal ending: but in the Veda such forms are only sporadic; and the neut. dat. has also the forms ue, ave, aye, like the other genders.

The abl. and gen. masc. and fem. have regularly, both earlier and later, the ending s with gunated vowel before it: thus, es, os; and in the Veda, the neut. forms the cases in the same way; although unas, required later, is also not infrequent (*inas* does not occur. But the normal forms yas (or *ias*) and vas (or uas) are also frequent in both masc. and neut. As masc. ending, unas occurs twice in RV.

The loc. masc. and fem. has for regular ending in the later language $\bar{a}u$, replacing both finals, *i* and *u*. And this is in the Veda also the most frequent ending; but, beside it, the *i*-stems form (about half as often in RV.; their loc. in \bar{a} : thus, $ugn\dot{a}$; and this is found once even in the neut.

The RV. has a number of examples of masc. and neut. locatives in avi (the normal ending and the u gunated before it) from u-stems; and certain doubtful traces of a corresponding ayi from *i*-stems. Half-a-dozen locatives in \bar{i} (regarded by the Vedic grammarians as prayrhyu or uncombinable: 138 d) are made from *i*-stems. The later language requires the neuter locatives to be made *ini* and *uni*; but the former never occurs in the oldest texts, and the latter only very rarely.

The later grammar allows the dat., abl.-gen., and loc. fem. to be formed at will with the fuller fem. terminations of long-vowel stems, namely $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$. Such forms are quite rare in the older language even from *i*-stems (less than 40 occurrences altogether in RV.; three times as many in AV.); and from *u*-stems they are almost unknown (five in RV. and AV.).

The voc. gunates the final of the stem, in masc. and fem., alike in the earlier and in the later language. In the neut., it is later allowed to be of the same form or the unaltered stem: and this was probably the usage in the older time also; not instances enough are quotable to determine the question (AV. has u once, and VS. o once).

337. Dual. The later and earlier language agree in making the nom.acc.-voc. masc. and fem. by lengthening the final of the stem. The same cases in the neuter (according to the rule given above) end later in *ini* and uni; but these endings are nearly unknown in the Veda (as, indeed, the cases are of only rare occurrence): AV. has *ini* twice (RV. perhaps once); VS. has uni once; RV. has ui from one u-stem, and i, once shortened to *i*, from one or two *i*-stems.

The unvarying ending of instr.-dat.-abl., in all genders, is *bhyām* added to the unchanged stem.

The gen.-loc. of all ages adds os to the stem in masc. and fem.; in neut., the later language interposes, as elsewhere in the weakest cases, a m; probably in the earlier Vedic the form would be like that of the other genders; but the only occurrence noted is one unos in AV.

338. Plural. The nom.-voc. masc. and fem. adds the normal ending as to the gunated stem-final, making ayas and avas. The exceptions in the Veda are very few: one word (ari) has ias in both genders, and a few feminines have is (like *i*-stems); a very few *u*-stems have *uas*. The neut. nom.-acc. ends later in *ini* and *ūni* (like *āni* from a: 329); but the Veda has *i* and *i* (about equally frequent) much oftener than *ini*; and *ū* and (more usually) *u*, more than half as often as *ūni*.

The accus. mase. ends in in and $\bar{u}n$, for older ins and $\bar{u}ns$, of which plain traces remain in the Veda in nearly half the instances of occurrence, and even not infrequently in the later language, in the guise of phonetic combination (**206** ff.). The accus. fem. ends in is and $\bar{u}s$. But both masc. and fem. forms in *ias* and *uas* are found sparingly in the Veda.

The inst. of all genders adds bhis to the stem.

The dat.-abl. of all genders adds bhyas (in V., almost never bhias) to the stem. The gen. of all genders is made alike in *inām* and *ūnām* (of which the \bar{a} is not seldom, in the Veda, to be resolved into *aam*). Stems with accented final in the later language may, and in the earlier always do, throw forward the accent upon the ending.

The loc. of all genders adds su (as su: 180) to the stem-final.

The accent is in accordance with the general rules already laid down, and there are no irregularities calling for special notice.

839. Examples of declension. As models of *i*-stems may be taken म्राप्ति *agni*, m., 'fire'; गति *gati*, f., 'gait'; चारि vári, n., 'water'.

	, ,		
Sing	ular:		
N.	म्रग्निस्	गतिम्	वारि
	agnis	gátis	vári
A.	म्रग्निम्	ਸ਼ਿਸ਼	वारि
	agnim	gátim	vāri
I.	สมิา	गत्या	वारिषा
	agnínā	gátyā	vāriņā
D.	म्राग्रे	गतये, गत्ये	वारिणे
	agnáye	gátaye, gátyāi	vårine
Ab. G.	म्रग्रेस्	गतेम्, गत्याम्	वारिणस्
	agnés	gátes, gátyās	vāriņas
L.	म्रती	गती, गत्याम्	वारिणि
221	agnāú	gátān, gátyām	váriņi
v .	म्रग्ने	गत <u>े</u>	वारि, वारे
••	чы ágne	gáte	vári, váre
	-	y	
Dua	_	•	~ ~
N. A. V.	म्रमी	ਸਨੀ	वारिणी
	agni	gátī	variņī
I. D. Ab.	म्रग्निभ्याम्	गतिभ्याम्	वारिभ्याम्
	agnibhyām	gátibhyām	varibhyām
G. L .	म्राग्रोस्	गत्योम्	वारिणोम्
	agnyós	gátyos	variņos
Plur	al :		
N. V.	ग्रगयस्	गतयम्	वारीणि
	agnáyas	gátayas	vármi

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DECLENSION II., i- AND U-STEMS.

A .	म्रग्रीन्	गतीस्	वारीणि
	agnin	gátīs	varīņi
I.	चग्रिभिस्	गतिभिम्	वारिभिस्
	agnibhis	gátibhis	väribhis
D. Ab.	ग्र ग्निभ्यस्	गतिभ्यम्	वारिभ्यम् váribhyas
	agnibhyas	gátibhyas	váribhyas
G.	म्रग्रीनाम्	गतीनाम्	वारीणाम्
	agnīnām	gátinām ·	vārīņām
L.	ជារាំថ្ម	गतिषु gátiņu	वारिषु
	agnișu	gátisu	vāriņu

340. In order to mark more plainly the absence in Vedic language of some of the forms which are common later, all the forms of Vedic occurrence are added below, and in the order of their frequency.

Singular. Nom. agnis etc., as above.

Acc.: masc. agnim, yayiam, ūrmiņam(?); fem. and neut. as above.

Instr.: masc. agnínā, rayyá and ūrmiā; fem. ácittī, ūtiá, anuvrktí, dhāsínā; neut. wanting.

Dat. : masc. agnáye ; fem. tujáye, ūtí, crútyāi ; neut. cúcaye.

Gen.-abl.: masc. agnés; fem. ádites, hetyás and bhúmiās; neut. bhúres. Loc.: masc. agnãú, agná, ājáyi(?); fem. ágatāu, úditā, dhánasātayi(?), védī, bhúmyām; neut. apratá, saptáraçmāu.

Voc.: as above (neut. wanting).

Dual: Nom.-acc.-voc.: masc. hárī; fem. yuvatī; neut. çúcī, máhi, háriņī (?). Instr.-dat.-abl.: as above.

Gen.-loc. : masc. hários; fem. yuvatyós and jāmiós; neut. wanting.

Plural. Nom.: masc. agnáyas; fem. matáyas, bhúmīs; neut. çúcī, bhúri, bhúrīni.

Accus. : masc. agnín; fem. ksitis, cúcayas(?).

Instr., dat.-abl., and loc., as above.

Gen.: masc. kavinam, fsiņaam etc.

	341. As	models of	<i>u</i> -stems	may	be take	n গাসু <i>çåtru</i> ,
m .,	'enemy';	धेनु dhemi,	f., 'cow	'; मधु	mådhu,	n., 'honey'.
	Singula	AT :		-		

N.	शत्रुम्	घेनुम्	मधु
	çátrus	dhenús	mádhu
A .	, शत्रुम् sátrum	पेनुम् dhenúm	मधु mádhu
1.	शत्रुणा	घेन्वा	मधुना
	çátruņā	dhenvá	mádhunā

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V. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

	•		-
D.	शत्रवे	ઘેનવે, ઘેન્વૈ	मधुने
	çátrave	d hendv e,dhenvāi	mådhune
Ab. G.	शत्रोम्	ઘેનોમ્, ઘેન્વામ્	मधुनम्
	çátrus	dhenós, dhenvás	mádhunas
L.	গ্রসী	धेनी, धेन्वाम्	म धनि
	çátrāu	dhenāú, dhenvām	mádhuni
V.	शत्रो	ધે નો	मधु, मधो
	çátro	dhéno	mádhu,mádho
Du	al :		
N.A. V.	গস্	घेन्	मधुनी
	çátrū	dhenu	mádhunī
I. D. Ab.	शत्रुभ्याम्	ઘેનુभ्याम्	मधुभ्याम्
	çátrubhyām	dhenilbhyām	mádhubhyām
G. L.	शच्चोस्	પેન્વોમ્	मधनोम
	çátrvos	dhenvós	mádhunos
Plu	ral :		
N. V.	शत्रवम्	ઘેનવમ્	मधूनि
	çátravas	dhenáva s	mádhūni
A .	গাস্ন্	धेनस्	मधनि
	çátrūn	dhenas	mádhūni
I.	গার্সিদ্	ઘેનમિમ	मधभिस्
	çátrubhis	dhenúbhis	mádhubhis
D. Ab.	शत्र्भ्यस्	ઘેનુयस्	मधुभ्यसू
	çátrubhyas	dhenúbhyas	mádhubhyas
G	शत्रूणाम्	धेनूनाम्	मधूनाम्
	çátrūņām	dhenūnām	mádhūnām
L.	হাস্ঘ্	ઘેન્ષ્	मध्य
	çátruşu	dhenúsu	mádhușu
040 m			e

342. The forms of Vedic occurrence are given here for the u-stems in the same manner as for the *i*-stems above.

Singular. Nom.: masc. and fem. as above; neut. urú, urú.

Accus.: masc. ketúm, ábhīruam, sucetúnam(?); fem. dhenúm.

Instr.: masc. ketúnā, paçvá and krituā; fem. ádhenuā and panvá, āçuyá; neut. midhunā, mádhvā.

Dat.: masc. ketáve, cíçve; fem. cárave, ísvāi; neut. uráve, mádhune. Abl.-geu.: masc. manyós, pitvás, sánamara fivās; neut.

mádhvas and mádhuas, mádhos, ma

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Loc.: masc. pūrūú, sūnávi; fem. síndhāu, rájjvām; neut. sánāu, sánavi, sáno, sánumi.

Voc.: as above.

Dual. Nom.-acc.-voc.: masc. and fem. as above; neut. urvi, jánunā. Instr.-dat.-abl.: as above.

Gen.-loc.: as above (but -ves or -uos).

Plural. Nom.: masc. rbhávas, múdhuas and múdhvas; fem. dhenávas, çutakratvas; neut. purúni, purú, purú.

Accus.: masc. rtun, paçvis; fem. fsus, midhvas.

Instr., dat.-abl., and loc., as above; also gen. (but with the resolution -unaam in part).

343. Irregular declension. There are no irregular u-stems, and only a very few *i*-stems.

a. Sákhi, m., 'friend', has for the five strong cases a peculiarly strengthened base (vriddhied), namely sákhāy, which in the nom. sing. is reduced to sákhā (without ending), and in the other cases takes the normal endings. The instr. and dat. sing. have the normal endings simply, without inserted *n* or guna; the abl.-gen. sing. adds us; and the loc. sing. adds $\bar{a}u$: the rest is like agni. Thus:

Sing. súkhā, súkhāyam, súkhyā, súkhye, súkhyus, súkhyūu, súkhe; Du. súkhāyāu, súkhibhyām, súkhyos; Pl. súkhāyas, súkhīn, etc. etc.

The Veda has usually $s\dot{\alpha}kh\bar{\alpha}y\bar{\alpha}$ du., and often resolves the y to i, in $s\dot{\alpha}khi\bar{\alpha}$, $s\dot{\alpha}khius$, etc. The compounds are usually declined like the simple word, unless sakha be substituted.

b. Páti, m., is declined regularly in composition, and when it has the meaning 'lord, master'; when uncompounded and meaning 'husband', it is inflected like sákhi in the instr., abl.-gen., and loc. sing., forming pátyā, pátya, pátya, pátyāu. There are occasional instances of confusion of the two classes of forms.

c. Júni, f., 'wife', has the gen. sing. júnyus in the Veda.

d. Arf, 'eager, greedy, hostile', has in the Veda arya's in pl. nom. and accus., masc. and fem.

e. Ví, 'bird', has in RV. the nom. vés (beside vís).

f. The stems $\hat{a}ksi$, 'eye', $\hat{a}sthi$, 'bone', $d\hat{a}dhi$, 'curds', and $s\hat{a}kthi$, 'thigh', are defective, their forms exchanging with and complementing forms from bases in $\hat{a}n$ ($aks\hat{a}n$ etc.): see the bases in an, below (431).

g. The stem pathi, 'road', is used to make up part of the inflection of púnthan: see below, 433.

h. Króstu, m., 'jackal', lacks the strong cases, for which the corresponding forms of krostr are substituted.

Adjectives.

344. Original adjective stems in i are few; those in u are much more numerous (many derivative verb-stems forming a

participial adjective in w). Their inflection is like that of nouns, and has been included in the rules given above; the stem is in general the same in all the three genders. In those weak cases, however — namely, the dat., abl.-gen., and loc. sing., and the gen.-loc. dual — in which neuter nouns differ from masculines in the later language by an inserted n (we have seen above that this difference does not exist in the Veda), the neuter adjective is allowed to take either form.

But adjectives in u preceded by one consonant sometimes form a derivative feminine stem by adding \bar{i} : thus, bahvi, urvi, prthvi, vibhvi, and so on. More rarely, the u is prolonged to \bar{u} to make a feminine-stem, which is then inflected like vadhu (below, 365). Some adjectives form their feminine in two of these ways, or even in all the three: thus, $b\bar{v}bhatsu$ and $b\bar{v}bhatsu$; tanu, and tanvi.

345. Roots ending in i or u (or r: **380**) regularly add a t when used as root-words or as root-finals of compounds; and hence there are no adjectives of the root-class in this declension.

Yet, in the Veda, a few words ending in a short radical u are declined as if this were suffixal: thus, *ásmṛtadhru*, suṣṭ \hat{u} ; and the AV. has pṛtan \bar{u} j ℓ (once). Roots in \bar{u} sometimes also shorten \bar{u} to u: thus, prabh \hat{u} , vibh \hat{u} , etc. (354); go (361) becomes gu in composition; and re perhaps becomes ri (362); while roots in \bar{u} sometimes apparently weaken \bar{u} to i (in -dhi from γ dh \bar{u}).

346. Compound adjectives having nouns of this declension as final member are inflected like original adjectives of the same endings.

Declension III.

Stems in long vowels: \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} .

347. The stems ending in long vowels fall into two well-marked classes or divisions: A. monosyllabic stems mostly bare roots — and their compounds, with a comparatively small number of others inflected like them; B. derivative feminine stems in $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ and $\overline{\xi}$ $\overline{\imath}$, with a small number in $\overline{\mathfrak{S}}$ \overline{u} which in the later language have come to be inflected like them. The latter division is by far the larger and more important, since most feminine adjectives, and considerable classes of feminine nouns, ending in $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ \overline{u} or $\overline{\xi}$ $\overline{\imath}$, belong to it.

Declension III, \bar{a} -, \hat{i} -, and \bar{u} -stems.

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A. Root-words, and those inflected like them.

348. The inflection of these stems is by the normal endings throughout, or in the manner of consonant-stems (with \mathfrak{AH} am, not \mathfrak{H} m, in the accus. sing.); peculiarities like those of the other vowel-declensions are wanting. The simple words are, as nouns, with few exceptions feminine; as adjectives (rarely), and in adjective compounds, they are alike in masculine and feminine forms. They may, for convenience of description, be divided into the following subclasses:

1. Root-words, or monosyllables having the aspect of such. Those in \bar{a} are so rare that it is hardly possible to make up a whole scheme of forms in actual use; those in \bar{i} and \bar{u} are more numerous, but still very few.

2. Compounds having such words, or other roots with long final vowels, as last member.

3. Polysyllabic words, of various origin and character, including in the Veda many which later are transferred to other declensions.

4. As an appendix to this class we may most conveniently describe the half-dozen bases, mostly of irregular inflection, ending in diphthongs.

349. Monosyllabic stems. Before the endings beginning with vowels, final \bar{i} is changed to iy and \bar{u} to uv; while final \bar{a} is dropped altogether, except in the strong cases and in the acc. pl., which is like the nominative (according to the grammarians, \bar{a} is lost here also: no instances of the occurrence of such a form appear to be quotable). Stems in \overline{i} and \overline{u} are in the later language allowed to take optionally the fuller endings āi, ās, ām in the singular (dat., abl.-gen., loc.); but no such forms are ever met with in the Veda (except bhiyāi [?], RV., once). Before $\bar{a}m$ of gen. pl., n may or may not be inserted; in the Veda it is regularly inserted, with a single exception (dhiyam, once). The vocative is like the nominative in the singular as well as the other numbers; but instances of its occurrence in uncompounded stems are not found in the Veda, and must be extremely rare everywhere. The earlier Vedic dual ending is \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.

350. To the $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ -stems, the rules for monosyllabic accent apply: the accent is thrown forward upon the endings in all the weak cases except the accus. pl., which is like the

nom. But the \bar{a} -stems appear (the instances are extremely few) to keep the accent upon the stem throughout.

851. Examples of declension. As models of monosyllabic inflection we may take $\exists j \dot{a}$, f., 'progeny'; $\exists f$ dhi, f., 'thought'; and $\exists bh \dot{a}$, f., 'earth'.

The first of these is rather arbitrarily extended from the four cases which actually occur: of the loc. sing. and gen. etc. du., no Vedic examples of \bar{a} -stems are found.

Sing	nlar :				
N.	तास्	धीम्	भूम		
	jās	dhis	भूम् bhás		
A .	जाम्	<u> </u>	भुवम्		
	jám	dhiyam	bhúram		
I.	ता	घिया	भुवा		
	já	dhiya	อ้หแงน์		
D.	।ज	घिये, धिये	भुवे, भुवै		
	jė	dhiyé, dhiyāi	bhuré, bhurāí		
Ab. G.	त्रम्	धियस,धियास	भुवम्. भुवास्		
	jás	dhiyas, dhiyas	bhurás, bhuvás		
L.	ন্নি	धियि,धियाम्	भवि, भवाम		
	ji	dhiyi, dhiyam	भुवि, भुवाम् bhuvi, bhuvám		
v .	जास्	धीम्	भस		
	jās	dhis	भूस् bhás		
Dua	l:				
N. A. V.	जी	धियी	भुवी		
	jāú	dhiyāu	bhúrāu		
I. D. Ab.	जाभ्याम्	धीभ्याम्	भुभ्याम्		
	jabhyām	dhībhyam	bhūbhyắm		
G . L.	जोम् <i>'</i>	धियोस्	भुवोस्		
	jós	dhiyós	bhurós		
Plural :					
N.	जाम्	<u> </u>	भुवस्		
	jās	dhiyas	bhúvas		
A .	जास् (जस् १)	धियस्	भुवस्		
	ita, jaz	dhiyaş	bhúvas		

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I.	जाभिस् jābhis	र्धाभिम् तhībhis	भूभिस् bhūbhis
	•		
D. Ab.	ज्ञाभ्यम् jābhyas	धीभ्यस् dhībhyás	भूम्यस् bhūbhyds
	jābhyas	-	bhūbhyás
G.	ज्ञानाम् (ज्ञाम् श)	धियाम्, धीनाम् dhiyám, dhīnám	भुवाम्, भूनाम् bhuvám, bhūnám
	jánām, jám	dhiyam, dhinam	bhuvam, bhūnām
L.	जाम्	धीषु	भूष्
	jäsu	dhīșú	भूष bhūșú

352. Monosyllabic stems in composition. When the nouns above described occur as final member of a compound, or when any root in \bar{a} or \bar{i} or \bar{u} is found in a like position, the inflection of an \bar{a} -stem is as above. But \bar{i} and \bar{u} -stems follow a divided usage: the final vowel before a vowel-ending is either converted into a short vowel and semivowel (*iy* or *uv*, as above) or into a semivowel simply $\langle y \text{ or } v \rangle$. The accent is nowhere thrown forward upon the endings; and therefore, when \bar{i} and \bar{u} become y and v, the resulting syllable is circumflex. Thus:

Sing	ular:				
N. V.	-d	hís	-b	hús	
A.	-dhíyam	-dhyirm	-bhúvam	-bhvàm	
I.	-dhíyā	-dhyà	-bhúvā	-bhvà	
D.	-dhíye	-dhyð	-bhúve	-bhvè	
Ab. G.	-dhiyas	-dhyàs	-bhúvas	-bhvàs	
L.	-dhíyi	-dhyì	-bhúvi	-bhvì	
Dua	1:				
N. A. V.	-dhíyūu	-dhyāù	-bhúvāu	-bhvāù	
I. D. Ab.	-dhtbl	-dh i bhyām		-bh ú bhyām	
G. L.	-dhiyos	-dhyds	-bhúvos	-bhvds	
Plur	al:				
N. A. V.	-dhíyas	-dhyds	-bhúvas	-bhvàs	
I.	-dhi	bhis	-bhū	bhis	
D. Ab.	-dh í	bhya s	-bhú	bhyas	
G.	-dhíyūm -dhī́nūm	-dhyħm	-bhúvām -bh ún ām	-bhvàm	
L.	-dhi	şu	-bhú	u	

As to the admissibility of the fuller endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, and $\bar{a}m$ in the singular (feminine), grammatical authorities are somewhat at variance; but they are never found in the Veda, and have been omitted from the above scheme as probably unreal.

If two consonants precede the final $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} , the dissyllabic forms, with iy and uv, are regularly written; after one consonant, the usage is varying. The grammarians prescribe iy and uv when the monosyllabic stem has more

Whitney, Grammar.

the character of a noun, and y and v when it is more purely a verbal root with participial value. No such distinction, however, is to be seen in the Veda — where, moreover, the difference of the two forms is only graphic, since the $y\bar{u}$ and $v\bar{u}$ forms and the rest are always to be read as dissyllabic: $i\bar{u}$ or $\bar{v}\bar{u}$ and $u\bar{u}$ or $\bar{u}\bar{u}$, and so on.

353. A few further Vedic irregularities or peculiarities may be briefly noticed.

Of the \bar{a} -stems, the forms in $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$, \bar{a} (du.) are sometimes to be read as dissyllables, *aas*, *aam*, *aa*. The dative of the stem used as infinitive is in $\bar{a}f$ (as if $\hat{a} + e$): thus, *prakhyāf*, *pratimāf*, *parādāf*.

Irregular transfer of the accent to the ending in compounds is seen in a case or two: thus, avadyabhiyá (RV.), ādhiá (AV.).

354. But compounds of the class above described are not infrequently transferred to other modes of inflection: the \bar{a} shortened to a for a masculine stem, or declined like a stem of the derivative \bar{a} -class (below, **365**) as feminine; the \bar{i} and \bar{u} shortened to i and u, and inflected as of the second declension.

Thus, compound stems in -ga, -ja, -da, -stha, -bhu, and others, are found even in the Veda, and become frequent later; and sporadic cases from yet others occur: for example, crtapan, vayodhāis and ratnadhébhis, dhanasāts (all RV.); and, from \bar{i} and \bar{u} compounds, vesacris (TS.), ahrayas (RV.), gaņacrībhis (RV.), rtanibhyas (RV.) and senānībhyas (VS.) and grāmanībhis (TB.), supānā (AV.), citibhrāve (TS.). Still more numerous are the feminines in \bar{a} which have lost their root-declension: examples are prajā (of which the further compounds in part have root-forms, svadhā, craddhā, pratimā, and others.

355. Polysyllabic Stems. Stems of this division of more than one syllable are very rare indeed in the later language, and by no means common in the earlier. The Rig-Veda, however, presents a not inconsiderable body of them; and as the class nearly dies out later, by the disuse of its stems or their transfer to other modes of declension, it may be best described on a Vedic basis.

a. Of stems in \bar{a} , masculines, half-a-dozen occur in the Veda: $pánth\bar{a}$, mánth \bar{a} , and rbhuksá are otherwise viewed by the later grammar: see below, **433 4**; ucán \bar{a} (nom. pr.) has the anomalous nom. sing. ucán \bar{a} (and loc. as well as dat. ucáne); mahá, 'great', is found only in accus. sing. and abundantly in composition: $dt\bar{a}$, 'frame', has only $dt\bar{a}su$ not derivable from dta.

b. Of stems in \bar{i} , over seventy are found in the Veda, nearly all feminines, and all accented on the final. Half of the feminines are formed from masculines with change of accent: thus, kalyāṇā (m. kalyāṇā), puruṣī (m. púruṣa); others show no change of accent: thus, yamī (m. yamā); others still have no corresponding masculines: thus, nadī, lakṣmī, sūrmī. The masculines are about ten in number: for example, rathī, prāvī, starī, ahī, āpathī.

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c. Of stems in \bar{u} , the number is smaller: these, too, are nearly all feminines, and all accented on the final. The majority of them are the feminine adjectives in \dot{u} to masculines in \dot{u} or u (above, **344**): thus, carany \dot{u} , carisn \dot{u} , jighats \dot{u} , madh \dot{u} . A few are nouns in \dot{u} , with change of accent: thus, agr \dot{u} ($\dot{a}gru$), $prd\bar{a}k\dot{u}$ ($\dot{p}\dot{r}d\bar{a}ku$), $cvacr\dot{u}$ (cvacura); or without change, as not \dot{u} . And a few have no corresponding masculines: thus, $tan\dot{u}$, $vadh\dot{u}$, cam \dot{u} . The masculines are only two or three; namely, $pr\bar{a}c\dot{u}$, $k_{\bar{r}}kad\bar{u}c\dot{u}$. maks $\dot{u}(2)$; and their forms are of the utmost rarity.

356. The mode of declension of these words may be illustrated by the following examples : rathi, m., 'charioteer'; nadi, f., 'stream'; tanh, f., 'body'.

No one of the selected examples occurs in all the forms: forms for which no example at all is quotable are put in brackets. No loc. sing. from any i-stem occurs, to determine what the form would be. The stem nadi is selected as example partly in order to emphasize the difference between the earlier language and the later in regard to the words of this division: nadi is later the model of derivative inflection.

Singular:			
N.	rathis	nadis	tanús
A.	rathiam	nadiam	tanúam
I.	rathia	nadía	tanúa
D.	rathie	nadie	tanúe
Ab. G.	rathias	nadías	tanúas
L.		A	tanúi
v.	ráthi (?)	nâdi	tānu
Dual:			
N. A. V.	rathia	nadía	tanúa
1. D. Ab.	[rathibhyām]	nadībhyām	[tanubhyam]
G. L.	[rathfos]	nadíos	tanúos
Plural :			
N.A.	rathias	nadías	tanúas
I.	[rathibhis]	nadībhis	tanübhis
D. Ab.	[rathibhyas]	nadībhyas	tanübhyas
G,	rathinām	nadīnām	tanünām
L.	[rathisu]	nadișu	tanūsu.
The error	- madiam tanks	m ata ara wr	tion abore second

The cases — nadiam, tanúam, etc. — are written above according to their true phonetic form, almost invariably belonging to them in the Veda: in the written text, of course, the stem-final is made a semivowel, and the resulting syllable is circumflexed: thus, nadyàm, tanvàm, etc.; only, as usual, after two consonants the resolved forms *iy* and *uv* are written instead; and also where the combination *yv* would otherwise result: thus, *cakríyã*, [agrúvāi,] and mitrāyúvas. The RV. really reads *staryàm* etc. twice, and *taneàs* etc. four times; and such contractions are more often made in the AV. The ending \bar{a} of the nom.-acc.-voc. du. is the equivalent of the later $\bar{a}u$. The nom. sing. in s from *i*-stems is found in the older language about sixty times, from over thirty stems.

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357. Irregularities of form, properly so called, are very few in this division: camti as loc. sing. (instead of camti) occurs a few times; and there is another doubtful case or two of the same kind; the final t is regarded as *pragrhya* or uncombinable (138); tanui is lengthened to tanti in a passage or two; -yúvas is once or twice abbreviated to -yús.

358. The process of transfer to the other form of i and \bar{u} -declemsion (below, **363** ff.), which has nearly extinguished this category of words in the later language, has its beginnings in the Veda; but in RV. they are excessively scanty: namely, $d\bar{u}id\bar{m}$, loc. sing., once, and *cractual*, do., once, and *dravitnud*, instr. sing., with two or three other doubtful cases. In the Atharvan, wo find the acc. sing. kuhám, tan um, vadhúm; the instr. sing. palāliá and one or two others; the dat. sing. vadhuāt, *cractua*, *agrúvāi*; the abl.-gen. sing. punarbhúvūs, prdūkuás, *cvactuás*; and the loc. sing. tanúām (with anomalous accent). The accusatives plural in $\bar{i}s$ and $\bar{u}s$ are nowhere met with.

359. Adjective compounds from these words are very few; those which occur are declined like the simple stems: thus, hiranyaväçis and sahásrastaris, átaptatanūs and sárvatanūs, all nom. sing. masculine.

Stems ending in diphthongs.

360. There are certain monosyllabic stems ending in diphthongs, which are too few and too diverse in inflection to make a declension of, and which may be most appropriately disposed of here, in connection with the stems in \bar{i} and \bar{u} , with which they have most affinity. They are:

stems in āu: nāú and glāú; stems in āi: rāi; stems in o: gó and dyó (or dyú, dív).

361. a. The stem $n\bar{a}i$, f., 'ship', is entirely regular, taking the normal endings throughout, and following the rules for monosyllabic accentuation (**317**) — except that the accus. pl. is said (it does not appear to occur in accented texts) to be like the nom. Thus: $n\bar{a}is$, $n\dot{a}vam$, $n\bar{a}v\dot{a}$, $n\bar{a}v\delta$, $n\bar{a}v\delta$, $n\bar{a}ri$; $n\dot{a}vau$, $n\bar{a}ubhy\dot{a}m$, $n\bar{a}v\delta$; $n\dot{a}vas$, $n\dot{a}vas$, $n\bar{a}ubhis$, $n\bar{a}ubhy\delta$ s, $n\bar{a}v\dot{a}m$, $n\bar{a}usi$.

The stem $gl\bar{a}\dot{a}$, m., 'ball', is apparently inflected in the same way; but few of its forms have been met with in use.

b. The stem $r\bar{a}i$, f. (or m.), 'wealth', might be better described as $r\bar{a}$ with a union-consonant y (258) interposed before vowel endings, and is regularly inflected as such, with normal endings and monosyllabic accent. Thus: $r\dot{a}s$, $r\dot{a}yam$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{e}$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}s$, $r\bar{a}yi$; $r\dot{a}y\bar{a}u$, $r\bar{a}bhy\dot{a}m$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{c}s$; $r\dot{a}yas$, $r\bar{a}yds$, $r\bar{a}bhis$, $r\bar{a}bhy\dot{c}s$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}m$, $r\bar{a}s\dot{u}$. But in the Veda the accus. pl. is either $r\bar{a}yds$ or $r\dot{a}yas$; for accus. sing. and pl. are also used the briefer forms $r\dot{a}m$ (which alone is of Vedic occurrence) and $r\dot{a}s$; and the gen. sing. is sometimes anomalously accented $r\dot{a}yas$.

c. The stem $g\delta$, m. or f., 'bull' or 'cow', is much more irregular. In the strong cases, except accus. sing., it is strengthened to $g\bar{a}\iota$, forming (like $n\bar{a}\iota$) $g\bar{a}\iota s$, $g\dot{a}v\bar{a}u$, $g\dot{a}ras$. In accus. sing. and pl. it has (like $r\bar{a}i$) the brief forms $g\dot{a}m$ and $g\dot{a}s$. The abl.-gen. sing. is $g\delta s$ (as if from gu). The rest is regularly made from go, with the normal endings, but with accent always remaining irregularly upon the stem: thus, $g\delta v\bar{a}$, $g\delta ve$, $g\delta vi$; $g\delta vos$; $g\delta v\bar{a}m$; $g\delta bhy\bar{a}m$, $g\delta bhis$, $g\delta bhyas$, $g\delta su$. In the Veda, another form of the gen. pl. is $g\delta n\bar{a}m$; the nom. etc. du. is (as in all other such cases) also $g\dot{a}v\bar{a}$; and $g\dot{a}m$, $g\delta s$, and $g\dot{a}s$ are not infrequently to be pronounced as dissyllables.

d. The stem $dy\delta$, f. (but in V. usually m.), 'sky, day', is yet more anomalous, having beside it a simpler stem dyu, which becomes div before a vowel-ending. The native grammarians treat the two as independent words, but it is more convenient to put them together. The stem $dy\delta$ is inflected precisely like $g\delta$, as above described. The complete declension is as follows (with forms not actually met with in use bracketed):

	Singular.		Dual.		Plural.	
N.	dyāús		[dívāu]	dyāvā u	dívas	dyāvas
A.	dívam	dyắm	(Luivau)	ayavau	divás, dy án	[dyās]
I.	divá	[dyåvā]	{dyúbhyām	dyóbhyām]	dyúbhis	[dyóbhis]
D.	divé	dyúve			{ [dyúbhyas	dy6bhyas]
Ab.	divás	dyós				
G.	divás	dy6s	{[divós	dyúvos]	[divā́m	dyávām]
L.	diví	dyávi			[dyúșu	dyóşu]

The dat. sing. $dy\dot{a}ve$ is not found in the early language. Both $d\dot{v}as$ and $d\dot{v}a\dot{s}$ occur as accus. pl. in V. As nom. etc. du., $dy\dot{a}v\ddot{a}$ is, as usual, the regular Vedic form: once occurs $dy\dot{a}v\ddot{v}$ (du.), as if a neuter form; and $dy\ddot{a}u\dot{s}$ is found once used as ablative. The cases $dy\ddot{a}us$, $dy\ddot{a}m$, and $dy\ddot{u}n$ (once) are read in V. sometimes as dissyllables; and the first as accented vocative then becomes $dy\ddot{a}u\dot{s}$ (i. e. $df\ddot{a}us$: see 314).

e. Adjective compounds having diphthongal stems as final member are not numerous. For go we have gu in such a position in δgu , sugu, and a few others; and, correspondingly, $r\bar{a}f$ seems to be reduced to ri in byhádraye and ydhádrayas (RV.). In revánt (unless this is for rayivant), $r\bar{a}f$ becomes $r\ell$. In a few compounds, dyu or dyo is anomalously treated as first member: thus. $dy\bar{a}usamptia (AV.)$, $dy\bar{a}urd\bar{a}$ (K.), $dy\bar{a}urloka$ (CB.).

B. Derivative stems in \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} .

362. To this division belong all the \bar{a} and \bar{i} -stems

which have not been specified above as belonging to the other or root-word division; and also, in the later language, most of the \bar{i} and \bar{u} -stems of the other division, by transfer to a more predominant mode of inflection. Thus:

a. The great mass of derivative feminine \bar{a} -stems, substantive and adjective.

The inflection of these stems has maintained itself with little change through the whole history of the language, being almost precisely the same in the Vedas as later.

b. The great mass of derivative feminine *i*-stems.

This class is without exception in the later language. In the earlier, it suffers the exception pointed out above (3555): that feminines made with change of accent follow this mode of declension only when the accent is not on the \hat{i} : thus, tâvisĩ, pârusni, pâlikni, róhini.

The *i*-stems of this division in general are regarded as made by contraction of an earlier ending in $y\bar{a}$. Their inflection has become in the later language somewhat mixed with that of the other division, and so far different from the Vedic inflection: see below, **364**, end.

Very few derivative stems in $\overline{\iota}$ are recognized by the grammarians as declined like the root-division; the Vedic words of that class are, if retained in use, transferred to this mode of inflection.

A very small number of masculine \bar{i} -stems (half-a-dozen) are in the Veda declined as of the derivative division: they are a few rare proper names, mitali etc.; and right and siri (only one case each).

c. The \bar{u} -stems are few in number, and are transfers from the other division, assimilated in inflection to the great class of derivative \bar{i} -stems (except that they retain the ending s of the nom. sing.).

363. Endings. The points of distinction between this and the other division are as follows:

In nom. sing. the usual s-ending is wanting: except in the \bar{u} -stems and a very few $\bar{\imath}$ -stems — namely, laksmi, tari, tantri — which have preserved the ending of the other division.

The accus. sing. and pl. add simply m and s respectively.

The dat., abl.-gen., and loc. sing. take always the fuller endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$; and these are separated from the final of the \bar{a} -stems by an interposed y.

Before the endings \bar{a} of instr. sing. and os of gen.-loc. du., the final of \bar{a} -stems is treated as if changed to ϵ ; but in the Veda, the instr. ending \bar{a} very often (in nearly half the occurrences) blends with the final to \bar{a} . The $y\bar{a}$ of \bar{i} -stems is in a few Vedic examples contracted to \bar{i} , and even to i. A loc. sing, in \bar{i} occurs a few times.

364] DECLENSION III. B, DERIVATIVE \bar{a} -, \bar{i} -, and \bar{u} -stems. 119

In all the weakest cases above mentioned, the accent of an \bar{i} or \bar{u} -stem having acute final is thrown forward upon the ending. In the remaining case of the same class, the gen. pl., a n is always interposed between stem and ending, and the accent remains upon the former (in RV., however, it is usually thrown forward upon the ending, as in i and u-stems).

In voc. sing., final \bar{a} becomes e; final \bar{i} and \bar{u} are shortened.

In nom.-acc.-voc. du. and nom. pl. appears in $\bar{\imath}$ (and \bar{u})-stems a marked difference between the earlier and later language, the latter borrowing the forms of the other division. The du. ending $\bar{a}u$ is unknown in RV., and very rare in AV.; the Vedic ending is $\bar{\imath}$ (a corresponding dual of \bar{u} -stems does not occur). The regular later pl. ending as has only a doubtful example or two in RV., and a very small number in AV.; the case there (and it is one of very frequent occurrence) adds s simply; and though yas-forms occur in the Brähmanas, along with $\bar{\imath}s$ -forms, both are used indifferently as nom. and accus. Of \bar{a} -stems, the du. nom. etc. ends in e, both earlier and later; in pl., of course, s-forms are indistinguishable from as-forms. The RV. has a few examples of $\bar{a}sas$ for $\bar{a}s$.

The remaining cases call for no remark.

364. Examples of declension. As models of the inflection of derivative stems ending in long vowels, we may take सेना sénā, f., 'army'; कन्या kanyà, f., 'girl'; ट्वी devi, f., 'goddess'; वय vadhū, f., 'woman'.

Singular:

N.	मेना	कन्या	देवी	वधूस्
	sénā	_{kanya}	_{devi}	vadhus
A.	सेनाम्	कन्याम्	देवीम्	वधूम्
	sénām	kanyàm	devim	_{vadh} am
I.	सेनया	कन्यया	देव्या	नध्ना
	sénayā	kanyàyā	devyá	vadhvá
D.	सेनाये	कन्याये	देव्ये	ਬਈ
	sénāyāi	kanyàyāi	devyāi	vadhvāi
Ab. G.	सेनायाम्	कन्यायास्	देव्यास्	वध्वाम्
	sénāyās	kanyàyās	devyás	vadhvás
L.	सेनायाम्	कन्यायाम्	देव्याम्	वध्वाम्
	sénāyām	kanyàyām	devyám	_{vadhvám}
v .	सेने	कान्य	देवि	वधु
	séne	kánye	dévi	vádhu

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N. A. V.	मेने séne	कन्ये kanyè	देव्यी devyāù	वध्वी vadhvāù
I. D. Ab.	सेनाभ्याम् sénābhyām	कन्याभ्याम् kanyàbhyām	देवीभ्याम् deribhyām	वधू-याम् cadhùbhyām
G. L.	सेनयोम् sénayos	नान्ययोम् kanyàyos	देव्योम् devyós	नध्वोस् vadhrós
	Plural :			
N . V.	सेनास् sénās	कन्यास् kanyàs	देव्यम् devyàs	वध्वस् vadhvàs
A .	सेनाम् sénās	कन्यास् kanyàs	देवीस् devis	वधूम् vadhūs
I.	मेनाभिम् sénābhis	कन्याभिस् kanyàbhis	देवीभिस् devibhis	वधूभिस् vadhúbhis
D. Ab.	सेनाभ्यम् sénābhyas	कन्याभ्यस् kanyàbhyas	देवीभ्यम् devibhyas	वधूभ्यम् radhubhyas
G.	मेनांनाम् sénānām	कन्यानाम् kanyànām	देवीनाम् devinām	वधूनाम् vadhūnām
L.	सनामु sénāsu	कन्यासु kanyत्रेsu	देवीषु devișu	वधूपु vadhüşu

In the Veds, vadhá is a stem belonging to the other division (like taná, above, 356).

365. Examples of Vedic forms are:

1. \bar{a} -stems: instr. sing. manīs \dot{a} (this simpler form is especially common from stems in $t\bar{a}$ and $i\bar{a}$); nom. pl. vaç $\dot{a}sas$ (about twenty examples: Lanman. p. 362); accus. pl. aramgam $\dot{a}sas$ (a case or two). Half the bhyas-cases are to be read as bhias; the $\bar{a}m$ of gen. pl. is a few times to be resolved into aam; and the \bar{a} and $\bar{a}m$ of nom. and accus. sing. are, very rarely, to be treated in the same manner.

2. i-stems: instr. sing. cámi, cámi, loc. gaurí; nom. etc. du. deví; nom. pl. devís; gen. pl. bahvinám. The final of the stem is to be read as a vowel (not y) frequently, but not in the majority of instances: thus, deviá, deviás, deviám, ródasios.

The sporadic instances of transfer between this division and the preceding have been already sufficiently noticed.

3. In the language of the Brāhmanas, the abl.-gen. sing. ending $\bar{a}s$ is almost unknown, and instead of it is used the dat. ending $\bar{a}i$. The assumption of the same substitution is suggested, but not required, in a few RV.

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Dual :

passages; and it is necessary once in AV. (iv. 5.6): svápantv asyāi jñātáyah. 'let her rolatives sleep'. Brāhmana examples are: tásyāi diçáh (TS.), 'from that direction'; striyāi payah (AB.), 'woman's milk'; dhenvāf vá etád rétah (TB.), 'that, forsooth, is the seed of the cow'; jyāyasī yājyāyāi (AB.), 'superior to the yūjyā'.

366. The noun strī, f., 'woman' (probably contracted from sūtrī, 'generatress'), follows a mixed declension: thus, strī, striyām or strīm, striyā, striyāf, striyās, striyām, strī; strīyūu, strībhyām, striyós; strīyas, striyas or strīs, strībhis, strībhyās, strīņām, strīņi (but the accusatives strīm and strīs are not found in the older language, and the voc. stri is not quotable). The accentuation is that of a root-word; the forms (conspicuously the nom. sing.) are those of the other division.

Adjectives.

 \cdot 367. a. The occurrence of original adjectives in long final vowels, and of compounds having as final member a stem of the first division, has been sufficiently treated above, so far as masculine and feminine forms are concerned. To form a neuter stem in composition, the rule of the later language is that the final long vowel be shortened; and the stem so made is to be inflected like an adjective in *i* or *u* (389, 341).

Such neuter forms are very rare, and in the older language almost unknown. Of neuters from $\bar{\imath}$ -stems have been noted in the Veda only haricrigam, acc. sing. (a masc. form), and suädhias, gen. sing. (same as masc. and fem.); from \bar{u} -stems, only a few examples, and from stem-forms which might be masc. and fem. also: thus, vibhá, subhá, etc. (nom.-acc. sing.: compare 354); supúā and mayobhúvā, instr. sing.; and mayobhú, acc. pl. (compare purá: 342); from \bar{u} -stems occur only half-a-dozen examples of a nom. sing. in $\bar{u}s$, like the masc. and fem. form.

b. Compounds having nouns of the second division as final member are common only from derivatives in \bar{a} ; and these shorten the final to a in both masculine and neuter: thus, from a. 'not', and *prajā*, 'progeny', come the masc. and neut. stem *apraja*, fem. *aprajā*, 'childless'. Such compounds with nouns in \bar{i} and \bar{u} are said to be inflected in masc. and fem. like the simple words (only with $\bar{i}n$ and $\bar{u}n$ in acc. pl. masc.); but the examples given by the grammarians are fictitious. The stem *strī* is directed to be shortened to *-stri* for all genders.

368. It is convenient to give a complete paradigm, for all genders, of an adjective-stem in Ξa . We take for the purpose $\Pi \varphi \bar{p} \bar{a} p \dot{a}$, 'evil', of which the feminine is usually made in $\Xi I \bar{a}$ in the later language, but in $\xi \bar{i}$ in the older.

	Singular :			
	m.	n.	f.	f.
N.	पापम्	पापम्	पापा	पापी
	pā p ás	pāpám	pāp a	pāpi
A .	प	ापम्	पापाम्	पापीम्
	p	oāpám	pāpām	pāpim
I.	ष	াদিন	पापया	पाप्या
	P	apéna	pāpáyā	pāpyā
D.	q	ापाय	पापायी	पाप्यै
	P	apáya	pāp āyāi	pāpyāi
Ab.	प	ापात	वाषायास्	पाप्यास्
	P	āpāt	pāpāyās	pāpy ás .
G.	q	ापस्य	पापायाम्	पाप्यास्
	P	apásya	pāpāyās	pāpyās
L.	q	ापे	पापायाम्	पाप्याम्
	ŀ	nāpé	pāpāyām	pāpy á m
v .	ष	ाप	पापे	पापि
	Ĩ	pápa	phpe	pápi
	Dnal :			
N. A. V.	पापी	पांचे	पापे	पार्प्यी
	pāpāú	pūpė	pāpé	pāpyāù
I.D.Ab.	प	ापाभ्याम्	पापाभ्याम्	पापीभ्याम्
	P	apábhyām	pāp ā bhyā m	pāpibhyām
G. L.	प	ापयोम्	पापयोम्	पाप्योम्
	p	apáyos	pāpáyos	pāpyós
	Plural :			
N.	पापास्	ঘাদানি	पापास्	पाप्यम्
	pāpās	pāpāni	pāpās	pāpyàs
A .	पापान्	पापानि	पापास्	पापीस्
	pāp ān	pāp āni	pāpās	pāpis
I.	प	पिस्	पापाभिस्	पापीभिस्
	p	āpāis	pāpābhis	pāpibhis
D. Ab.	प	ापेभ्यम्	पापाभ्यस्	पापीभ्यम्
	р	āpébhyas	pāpābhyas	pāpibhyas

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371]	Declensio	1:	
G.	पापानाम्	पापानाम्	पापीनाम्
	pāpānām	pāpánām	_{pāpinām}
L.	µ-y-anna	म्ब्रायामु	२०२००००
	पापेषु	वापामु	पापीषु
	pāpéşu	व्रिवर्षक्ष	pāpişu

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Declension IV.

Stems in r (or ar).

369. This declension is a comparatively limited one, being almost entirely composed of derivative nouns formed with the suffix \overline{n} tr (or \overline{n} tar), which makes masculine nomina agentis (used also participially), and a few nouns of relationship.

But it includes also a few nouns of relationship not made with that suffix: namely $dev_{\vec{r}}$, m., svåsr and $ndn\bar{a}ndr$, f.; and, besides these, $n_{\vec{r}}$, m., $st_{\vec{r}}$ (in V.), m., $us_{\vec{r}}$ (in V.), f., savyasithr, m., and the feminine numerals tisr and catasr (for which, see chap. VI.). The feminines in $t_{\vec{r}}$ are only $m\bar{a}t_{\vec{r}}$, $duhit_{\vec{r}}$, and $ydt_{\vec{r}}$.

The inflection of these stems is quite closely analogous with that of stems in i and u (second declension); its peculiarity, as compared with them, consists mainly in the treatment of the stem itself, which has a double form, fuller in the strong cases, briefer in the weak ones.

370. Forms of the Stem. In the weak cases (excepting the loc. sing.) the stem-final is r, which in the weakest cases, or before a vowel-ending, is changed regularly to r (129). But as regards the strong cases, the stems of this declension fall into two classes: in one of them — which is very much the larger, containing all the nomina agentis, and also the nouns of relationship nápt; and svás;, and the irregular words st_r and savyasth; — the r is vriddhied, or becomes $\bar{a}r$; in the other, containing most of the nouns of relationship, with n_r and us_r , the r is gunated, or changed to ar. In both classes, the loc. sing. has ar as stem-final.

371. Endings. These are in general the normal, but with the following exceptions:

The nom. sing. (masc. and fem.) ends always in \bar{a} (for original *ars*). The voc. sing. ends in ar.

The accus. sing. adds am to the (strengthened) stem; the accus. pl. has (like *i* and *u*-stems) *n* as masc. ending and *s* as fem. ending, with the *r* lengthened before them. The abl.-gen, sing, changes r to ur or us: 169, end.

The gen. pl. as in *i* and *u*-stems inserts *n* before $\bar{u}m$, and lengthens the stem-final before it. But the *r* of m' may also remain short.

The above are the rules of the later language. The older presents certain deviations from them. Thus:

The ending in nom. etc. du. is as universally in the Veda) regularly \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$ (only ten $\bar{a}u$ -forms in RV...

The i of loc. sing. is lengthened to i in a few words: thus, kartúri.

In the gen. pl., the RV. has once statsrām. without inserted n: and narám instead of $n_{rn}am$ is frequent.

Other irregularities of ny are the sing. dat. noire. gen. noiros, and loc. noiroi. The Veda writes always nynoim in gen. pl., but its y is in a majority of cases metrically long.

The stem usr, f., 'dawn', has the voc. sing. usar, the gen. sing. usrás; and the accus. pl. also usrás, and loc. sing. usrám which is metrically trisyllabic: usrám, as if in analogy with $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems. Once occurs usrf in loc. sing., but it is to be read as if the regular trisyllabic form, usári (for the exchange of s and s, see 181 a.

From str come only taras (apparently) and strbhis.

In the gen.-loc. du., the τ is almost always to be read as a separate syllable, τ , before the ending as: thus, pitros, etc. On the contrary, manandari is once to be read manandari.

For neuter forms, see below, 378.

372. Accent. The accentuation follows closely the rules for *i* and *u*-stems: if on the final of the stem, it continues, as acute, on the corresponding syllable throughout, except in the gen. pl., where it may be (and in the Veda always is) thrown forward upon the ending; where, in the weakest cases, *r* becomes *r*, the ending has the accent. The two monosyllabic stems, nr'and str', do not show the monosyllabic accent: thus (besides the forms already given above), nr'sbhis, nr'su.

373. Examples of declension. As models of this mode of inflection, we may take from the first class (with चार् ār in the strong forms) the stems दात् dātr. m., 'giver', and स्वस् svásr, f., 'sister'; from the second class (with चर् ar in the strong forms) the stem पित् pitr. m., 'father'.

Singular:			-
N.	दाता	स्वसा	पिता
	dātā	svásā	pitá
A .	दातारम् dātáram	स्वसारम् svásāram	पितरम् pitáram

I.	दात्रा	स्वमा	पित्रा
	dātrā	svásrā	pitrá
D.	दात्रे	स्वम्रे	/ पिंत्रे
<i>D</i> .	dātré	svásre	pitré
Ab. G.			प्रि <u>त्</u> रू
AU. U.	दातुर datur	स्वमु <u>र्</u> svásur	pitúr
L.	दानहि	स्वमरि स्वमरि	-
L.	airit dātári	ranı svásari	पितरि pitári
v.			-
۷.	दातर् dátar	स्वमर् svásar	দি ন রু _{pitar}
	auur	scusur	puar
Dual:			
N. A. V.	दातारी	स्वमारी	पितरी
	dātārāu	scásārāu	pitárāu
I. D. Ab.	दातृभ्याम् .	म्वमृभ्याम्	पितृभ्याम्
	dātrbhyām	svás rbhyām	pitrbhyām
G. L.	दात्रोस	स्वस्रोम्	पित्रोम्
	dātrós	svásros	pitrós
Plural	•		
N. V.	द्रातारम्	स्वसारम्	पितरम्
	dātáras	svásāras	pitáras
Α.	दातृन्		দিনৃন্
		स्वमॄम् scásīs	pitŕn
	•	•	
I.	दातृभिम् ^{dātřibhis}	स्वमृभिम् srásŗbhis	पितृभिम् pitrbhis
-			-
D. Ab.	दातृभ्यम्	स्वसृभ्यस्	पितृभ्यम्
	dātrbhyas	svásrbh yas	pitr bhyas
G.	בָותְשווּ म् dātrņām	स्वसॄणाम् svúsrṇām	पितृ पााम् pitr nam
	dat rnam		•
L.	दानृषु	स्वमृषु	দিন্षु
	dātrsu	કર્પાકરણા	pitṛṣu

The feminine stem मातृ mātr, 'mother', is inflected precisely like यित् pitr, excepting that its accusative plural is मातृम् mātrs.

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The peculiar Vedic forms have been sufficiently instanced above: the only ones of other than sporadic occurrence being the nom. etc. du. duthin, scheme, pitters, and the gen. pl. of m. norism.

374. The stem *brosti*. m. jackal litly howler substitutes in the middle cases the corresponding forms of *brosts*.

375. Neuter forms. The grammarians prescribe a complete neuter declension also for bases in ϕ , precisely accordant with that of rari or main data above. **339**, **341**. Thus, for example:

	Sing.	Du.	Plur.
N. A.	dhāt i	dhāt iņ ī	diatri
I.	dhātrņā	dhitrohyim	dhati shus
G.	dhatinas	dhatines	diatra in
ν.	distr. distar	dkitrai	di ifini.

The weakest cases, however as of i and westems used adjectively: 344, are allowed also to be formed like the corresponding masculine cases: thus, $dh\bar{a}tr\dot{a}$ etc.

No such neuter forms chance to occur in the Veda, but they begin to appear in the Brähmanas. under influence of the common tendency compare Germ. Retter, Retterin: Fr. menteur, menteuse to give the nomen agentis a more adjective character, making it correspond in gender with the noun which it appositively qualifies. Thus, we have in TB. Marty and jamayity, qualifying antirikyam; and bhartyni and jamayityni, qualifying milipatrum; as, in M., grahityni, qualifying indrivini.

When a feminine noun is to be qualified in like manner, the usual feminine derivative in i is employed; thus, in TB., bhortryds and bhortrydd, jamayitryds and jamayitrydd, qualifying dynh and abordtrd; and such instances are not uncommon.

The RV, shows the same tendency very curiously once in the accus. pl. matfin, instead of matfin, in apposition with masculine nouns RV. x. 35.2.

Other neuter forms in RV, are stättär, gen. sing., dhmätäri, he. sing.; and for the nom. sing., instead of -tr, a few more or less doubtful cases. sthätar, sthätär, dhartári Lanman, p. 422.

Adjectives.

376. a. There are no original adjectives of this declension: for the quasi-adjectival character of the nouns composing it, see above **378**. The feminine stem is made by the suffix *i*: thus, $d\bar{a}tr\bar{i}$. $dh\bar{a}tr\bar{i}$.

b. Roots ending in r like those in i and u: 345 add a t to make a declinable stem, when occurring as final member of a compound: thus, karmakrt] kr, rairabhrt] bhr, balihrt (] hr. From some r-roots, also, are made stems in ir and ur; see below, 383a, b. c. Nouns in r as finals of adjective compounds are inflected in the same manner as when simple, in the masculine and feminine; in the neuter, they would doubtless have the peculiar neuter endings in nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

Declension V.

Stems ending in Consonants.

877. All stems ending in consonants may properly be classed together, as forming a single comprehensive declension; since, though some of them exhibit peculiarities of inflection, these have to do almost exclusively with the stem itself, and not with the declensional endings.

378. In this declension, masculines and feminines of the same final are inflected precisely alike; and neuters are peculiar (as usually in the other declensions) only in the nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

The majority of consonantal stems, however, are not inflected in the feminine, but form a special feminine derivative stem in $\xi \bar{i}$ (never in $\overline{a} \bar{a}$, by adding that ending to the weak form of the masculine.

Exceptions are in general the stems of divisions A and B — namely, the radical stems etc., and those in *as* and *is* and *us*. For special cases, see below.

879. Variations, as between stronger and weaker forms, are very general among consonantal stems: either of two degrees (strong and weak), or of three (strong, middle, and weakest): see above, 311.

The peculiar neuter forms, according to the usual rule (311,, are made in the plural from the strong stem, in singular and dual from the weak — or, when the gradation is threefold, in singular from the middle stem, in dual from the weakest.

As in the case of stems ending in short vowels $(\bar{a}symmods)$ varīņi, madhūni, $d\bar{a}tini$, etc., a nasal sometimes appears in the special neuter plural cases which is found nowhere else in inflection. Thus, from the stems in *as*, *us*, *us*, the nom. etc. pl. in *-ānsi*, *-īnsi*, *-ūnsi* are very common at every period. According to the grammarians, the radical stems etc. division A) are treated in the same way: but examples of such neuters are of excessive rarity in the older language: no Vedic text offers one, and in the Brāhmanas have been noted only *-hunti* (AB. vii. 2), *-rrnti* PB. xvi. 2.7 et al., and *-bhānīji* (KB. xxvii. 7): it may be questioned whether they are not late analogical formations.

380. The endings are throughout those given above **310**) as the "normal".

By the general law as to finals [150], the s of the nom. sing. masc. and fem. is always lost; and irregularities of treatment of the final of the stem in this case are not infrequent.

The gen. and abl. sing. are never distinguished in form from one another — nor are, by ending, the nom. and accus. pl.: but these sometimes differ in stem-form. or in accent, or in both.

381. Change in the place of the accent is limited to monosyllabic stems and the participles in *ánt* (accented on the final). For details, see below, under divisions A and E.

A few of the compounds of the root $a\bar{n}c$ or ac show an irregular shift of accent in the oldest language: see below, 410.

382. For convenience and clearness of presentation, it will be well to separate from the general mass of consonantal stems certain special classes which show kindred peculiarities of inflection. and may be best described together. Thus:

B. Derivative stems in as. is, us;

C. Derivative stems in an (an, man, can);

D. Derivative stems in in (in. min. cin.;

E. Derivative stems in ant (ant, mant, cant):

F. Perfect active participles in $c\bar{a}\dot{n}s$;

G. Comparatives in yas.

There remain, then, to constitute division A. especially radical stems, or those identical in form with roots, together with a comparatively small number of others which are inflected like these.

They -""

ar thus indicated.

A. Root-stems, and those inflected like them.

383. The stems of this division may be classified as follows:

a. Root-stems, having in them no demonstrable element added to a root: thus, *ic*, 'verse'; *gir*, 'song'; *påd*, 'foot'; *dic*, 'direction'; *måh* (V.), 'great'.

Such stems, however, are not always precisely identical in form with the root: thus, vie from γ vac, srij from γ srj, műs from γ mus, vric from γ vrace (?), ús from γ vas 'shine'; — and from roots in final r come stems in ir and ur: thus, gir, \bar{u} -cir, stir; júr, túr, dhúr, púr, múr, stúr; and psúr from γ psar.

With these may be ranked the stems with reduplicated root, as cikit, yaviyúdh, vánivan, sasyád.

Words of this division in uncompounded use are tolerably frequent in the older language: thus, in RV. are found more than a hundred of them; in AV., about sixty; but in the classical Sanskrit the power of using any root at will in this way is lost, and the examples are comparatively few. In all periods, however, the adjective use as final of a compound is very common (see below, 401).

b. Stems made by the addition of *t* to a final short vowel of a root.

No proper root-stem ends in a short vowel, although there are (above, **354**) examples of transfer of such to vowel-declensions; but *i* or *u* or *r* adds a *t* to make a declinable form: thus, -jtt, -crtt, -krt. Roots in *r*, however, as has just been seen, also make stems in *ir* or *ur*.

As regards the frequency and use of these words, the same is true as was stated above respecting root-stems. The Veda offers examples of nearly thirty such formations, a few of them (mfl, rfl, stút, hrút, vrt, and dyút if this is taken from dyu) in independent use. Of roots in r, kr, dhr, dhvr, bhr, vr, sr, spr, hr, hvr add the t. The roots $g\bar{a}$ (or gam) and han also make $-g\acute{u}t$ and $-h\acute{u}t$ by addition of the t to an abbreviated form in a (thus, $adhvag\acute{u}t$, $dyug\acute{u}t$, navag\acute{u}t, and $sarhh\acute{u}t$).

As to the infinitive use of various cases of the root-noun in these two forms, see chap. XIII.

c. Monosyllabic (also apparently reduplicated) stems not certainly connectible with any verbal root in the language, but having the aspect of root-stems, as containing no traceable suffix: thus, trác, 'skin'; páth, 'road'; hrid, 'heart'; áp, 'water'; ás, 'mouth'; kakúbh and kakúd, 'summit'.

Thirty or forty such words are found in the older language, and some of them continue in later use, while others have been transferred to other modes of declension or have become extinct.

d. Stems more or less clearly derivative, but made with suffixes of rare or even isolated occurrence. Thus:

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1. derivatives (V., from prepositions with the suffix vat: arvāvāt, āvāt, udvát, nivát, parāvát, pravát, sarbvát;

2. derivatives 'V.; in $t\bar{a}t$ 'perhaps abbreviated from $t\bar{a}ti$, in a few isolated forms: thus, upar $dt\bar{a}t$, $dev dt\bar{a}t$, $vrk dt\bar{a}t$, saty $dt\bar{a}t$, sarv $dt\bar{a}t$;

3. other derivatives in t, preceded by various vowels: thus, vehát, vahát, eravát, saçcát, vághat; nápūt; tadít, divû, yosû, rohû, sarû, harû; marút; yákyt, çákyt; and the numerals for '30, 40, 50', trinçát etc. 475;;

4. stems in ad : thus, dreid, dhreid, bhasid, vanid, çarad;

5. stems in j, preceded by various vowels: thus, tromáj, dhreáj, sanáj; ucij, vaníj, bhurij, niníj(?); ásrj;

6. a few stems ending in a sibilant apparently formative: thus, $j\bar{n}d\bar{s}$. -dūs, bhds, mds, bhis;

7. a remnant of unclassifiable cases, such as visitáp, vípāç, káprth. curúdh, isidh, prisúdh, raghát (?).

384. Gender. The root-stems are regularly feminine as nomen actionis, and masculine as nomen agentis (which is probably only a substantive use of their adjective value: below, **400**. But the feminine noun, without changing its gender, is often also used concretely: e. g., druh f. (γ /druh, 'be inimical') means 'harming, enmity', and also 'harmer, hater, enemy' — thus bordering on the masculine value. And some of the feminines have a completely concrete meaning. Through the whole division, the masculines are much less numerous than the feminines, and the neuters rarest of all.

The independent neuter stems are $h\dot{r}d$ (also $-h\bar{a}rd$, $d\dot{a}m$, $v\dot{a}r$, $sv\dot{a}r$, $m\dot{a}s$ 'flesh', $\dot{a}s$ 'mouth', $bh\dot{a}s$, dos, and the indeclinables $c\dot{a}m$ and $y\dot{o}s$: also the derivatives $y\dot{a}krt$, $c\dot{a}krt$, $\dot{a}srj$.

385. Strong and weak stem-forms. The distinction of these two classes of forms is usually made either by the presence or absence of a nasal, or by a difference in the quantity of the stem-vowel. as long or short; less often, by other methods.

386. A nasal appears in the strong cases of the following words:

a. Compounds having as final member the root as or and: see below. **407** ff.; — **b.** The stem yuy, sometimes V. : thus, nom, sing, yun for yunt, accus, yunifiam, du, yunifu but also yujam and yuja : — c. The stem -dry, as final of a compound V. : but only in the nom, sing, mass., and not always thus, any.drn, idrn, vidrn, sadrin and pritisadrin ; but also idrt, tadric, searchiv, etc.: — d. For path and public, which substitute more extended stems, and for dant, see below, 394-6.

397. The vowel a is lengthened in strong cases as follows :

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a. Of the roots vac, sac, sap, nabh, cas, in a few instances (V.), at the end of compounds; — b. Of the roots vah and sah, but irregularly: see below, 403—5; — c. Of ap 'water' (see 393); also in its compound rityàp; — d. Of pad, 'foot': in the compounds of this word, in the later language, the same lengthening is made in the middle cases also; and in RV. and AV. the nom. sing. neut. is both -pat and -pāt, while -pādbhis and -pātsu occur in the Brāhmaņas; — e. Of nas, 'nose'; — f. Sporadic cases (V.) are: $y\bar{a}j$ (?), voc. sing.; pāthās and -rāpas, accus. pl.; vānīvānas, nom. pl. The strengthened forms bhāj and rāj are constant, through all classes of cases.

388. Other modes of differentiation, by elision of a or contraction of the syllable containing it, appear in a few stems:

a. In -han: see below, 402; — b. In ksam (V.), along with prolongation of a: thus, ksámā du., ksámas pl.; ksamá instr. sing., ksámi loc. sing., ksmás abl. sing.; — c. In dvár, contracted (V.) to dur in weak cases (but with some confusion of the two classes); — d. In svàr, which becomes (RV.) sūr in weak cases : later it is indeclinable.

389. The endings are as stated above (380).

Respecting their combination with the final of the stem, as well as the treatment of the latter when it occurs at the end of the word, the rules of euphonic combination (chap. III.) are to be consulted; they require much more constant and various application here than anywhere else in declension.

Attention may be called to a few exceptional cases of combination (V_{\cdot}) : mūdbhis and mūdbhyás from más 'month'; the wholly anomalous padbhis (RV. and VS.: AV. has always padbhis) from pád; and sarát and sarádbhyas corresponding to a nom. pl. sarághas (instead of saráhas: **222**). Dán is apparently for dám, by 143, end. Agnídh is abbreviated from agni-fáh.

According to the grammarians, neuter stems, unless they end in a nasal or a semivowel, take in nom.-acc.-voc. pl. a strengthening nasal before the final consonant. But no such cases from neuter noun-stems appear ever to have been met with in use; and as regards adjective stems ending in a root, see above, 379.

390. Monosyllabic stems have the regular accent of such, throwing the tone forward upon the endings in the weak cases.

But the accusative plural has its normal accentuation as a weak case, upon the ending, in only a minority (hardly more than a third) of the stems: namely in datás, pathás, padás, nidás, apás, usás, jñāsás, pumsás, māsás, mahás; and sometimes in vācás, srucás, hrutás, sridhás, kṣapás, vipás, durás, iṣás, dviṣás, druhás (beside vácas etc.).

Exceptional instances, in which a weak case has the tone on the stem, occur as follows: $s\dot{a}d\bar{u}$, $n\dot{a}dbhyas$, $t\dot{a}n\bar{a}$ (also $tan\dot{a}$) and $t\dot{a}ne$, $r\dot{a}ne$ and $r\dot{a}nsu$, $v\dot{a}nsu$, $sv\dot{a}ni$, vfpas, $k_s\dot{a}mi$, $s\ddot{u}r\bar{a}$ and $s\ddot{u}ras$ (but $s\bar{u}r\dot{e}$, $\dot{a}nhas$, and $v\dot{a}nas$ and $b\dot{f}has$ (in $v\dot{a}nasp\dot{a}ti$, $b\dot{f}hasp\dot{a}ti$). On the other hand, a strong case is accented

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on the ending in makis. nom. pl., and kāsim 'AV.: perhaps a false reading. And presā, instr. sing., is accented as if prés were a simple stem, instead of pra-fg. Vimydkia is of doubtful character. For the sometimes anomalous accentuation of stems in ac or ane, see 410.

391. Examples of inflection. As an example of normal monosyllabic inflection, we may take the stem तान् các, f.. voice' from vनन् cac. with constant prolongation; of inflection with strong and weak stem. यह pád. m.. foot'; of polysyllabic inflection. नारन marit. m.. wind' or wind-god'; of a monosyllabic root-stem in composition. तित्रज्ञ trivit. three-fold'. in the neuter. Thus:

	Singular :			
N. V.	বাক্	पाट्	नहत्	त्रिवृत्
	rák	påd	marút	triert
A .	বাৰন্	पाटन्	ন্চ্বন্	त्रिवन्
	rácam	pādam	maritam	tricit
I.	वाचा	দ্য	নকনা	त्रिव्ता
	rācā	pada	marútā	tricitā
D.	वाचे	म्	नरूते	त्रिवृते
	r āc i	padé	marite	tricrte
Ab. G.	বাचন্	ऋन्	नहृतन्	त्रिवृतम्
	rācás	padás	maritas	tricrias
L.	वाचि	সহি	नक्तनि	त्रिवृति
•	rāci	padi	marúti	tricrh
	Dual:	-	-	
N. A. V.	वाची	याही	नर्त्ती	त्रिव्नी
	รล้ <i>c</i> ลิน	pādāu	moritāu	tricrti
I. D. Ab.		पद्मान्	नरुद्यान्	त्रिवद्याम्
	cāgbhyắm	padbhy am	marúdbhyām	tricrdbhyām
G. L.	वाचोन्	पदोम्	मह्ततोन्	त्रिवनोन्
	rācós	padis	n.grutos	tricitos
	Plural :			
N. V .	বাৰন্	মাহন্	नकृतम्	त्रिव्सि
	cācas	pāci as	maritas	rierni
A .	বাचন্	पटन्	ন্চনন্	त्रिवृत्ति
	rācás. rácas	padás	maritas	tritynti

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I.	वाग्भिस्	पद्मिम्	मह्तिस्	त्रिवृद्धिस्
	_{vāgbhis}	padbhís	marúdbhis	trivrdbhis
D. Ab.	वाग्भ्यस्	पद्यस्	मह्रुद्धम्	त्रिवृद्यम्
	vāgbhyds	padbhyás	marúdbhyas	trividbhyas
G.	वाचाम्	पदाम्	मह्ताम्	त्रिवृताम्
	vācám	padám	marútām	trivrtām
L.	वातु	पत्मु	महत्मु	त्रिवृत्मु
	vākşú	patsú	marútsu	trivrtsu

392. The stems in *ir* and *ur*, and *is* and *us*, lengthen their vowel (**245 b**) when their final is followed by another consonant, and also in the nom. sing. (where the following *s* is lost): thus, from gir, f., 'song', gir (gih), giram, girá etc.; girāu, gīrbhyám, girós; giras, gīrbhis, gīrbhyás girám, gīrşú (**165**); and so pár, púram, pūrbhis, pūrşú; and āçis, āçişām, āçişā, āçirbhis, āçihşu; and so on.

393. The stem dp, f., 'water', is inflected only in the plural, and with dissimilation of its final before bh to d (151d): thus, dpas, apds, adbhis, adbhyds, apdm, apsu.

But RV. has the sing. instr. apá and gen. apás. In AV. often, and in an instance or two in RV., the nom. and accus. pl. forms are confused in use, dpas being employed as accus., and (in an instance or two), apás as nominative.

394. The stem $p \mbox{ins}$, m., 'man', is very irregular, substituting $p \mbox{im} \mbox{ans}$ in the strong cases, and losing its s (necessarily) before initial bh of a case-ending, and likewise (by analogy with this, or by an abbreviation akin with that noticed at **291**) in the loc. plural. The vocative is (in accordance with that of the somewhat similarly inflected perfect participles: below, **462a**) $p \mbox{im} \mbox{an}$ in the later language, but $p \mbox{im} \mbox{as}$ in the earlier. Thus: $p \mbox{im} \mbox{an}$, $p \mbox{im} \mbox{s}$, $p \mbox{im} \mbox{im} \mbox{s}$, $p \mbox{$

The accentuation of the weak forms, it will be noticed, is that of a true monosyllabic stem. The forms with bh-endings nowhere occur in the older language, nor do they appear to have been cited from the later. As to the retention of *s* unlingualized in the weakest cases (whence necessarily follows that in the loc. pl.), see **183**.

395. The stem *path*, m., 'road', is defective in declension, forming only the weakest cases, while the strong are made from *pánthā* or *pánthan*, and the middle from *pathi*: see under *an*-stems, below, **433**.

396. The stem dánt. m.. :tooth. is perhaps of participial origin. and has. like a participle. the forms dánt and dát, strong and weak: thus V., dán. dántam, data. etc.: datás acc. pl. etc. But in the middle cases it has the monosyllabic and not the participial accent: thus. dadbhis. dadbhis. In nom. pl. occurs also -datas instead of -dantas. By the grammarians, the strong cases of this word are required to be made from dánta.

397. A number of other words of this division are defective, making part of their inflection from stems of a different form.

Thus, if d. n., heart, mins or mis, n., meat, mis, m., 'month', mis, f., 'mise', mig, f., night' not found in the older language, pit, f., 'army', are said by the grammarians to lack the nom, of all numbers and the accus, sing, and du, the newters, of course, the acc, pl. also, making them respectively from bridge, minsel, mise, missibil, migi, prionil. But the usage in the older language is not entirely in accordance with this requirement: thus, we find mis, 'lesh', accus, sing.; mis, 'month', nom, sing.; and missi, 'nostrils', du. From privational priority is and RV., once the same case with double ending, privites.

398. On the other hand, certain stems of this division, allowed by the grammarians a full inflection, are used to fill up the deficiencies of those of another form.

Thus, isy, n., 'blood', piket, n., 'ordure', yikyt, n., 'liver', dos, n. also m., 'fore-arm', have beside them defective stems in me: see below, 433. Of none of them, however, is anything but the nom,-acc, sing, found 'n the older language, and other cases later are but very scantily represented.

Of its, n., 'mouth', and its, 'water', only a case or two are found, in the older language, beside its's and itsy's, and adds and (idah) 438.

309. Some of the alternative stems mentioned above are instances of transition from the consonant to a vowel declension thus, dimin, mdsa, A number of other similar cases occur, sporadically in the older language, more commonly in the later. Such are pida, -wilda, -dire, Mräjd, rigifipa, drima and dava, para, diara, -dire, adai, axii, ksipi, kaapi, dri, and perhaps a few others.

A few invegular stems will find a more proper place under the head of Adjectives.

Adjectives.

400. Original adjectives having the rost-form are comparatively rare even in the oldeer language.

About a dozen are quotable from the RV., for the most part only in a few scattering cases. But work, groat, is common in RV., though it dies out mpidly later. It makes a destivative femitaline stem, mult, which continues in use, as meaning and as



401. But compound adjectives, having a root as final member, with the value of a present participle, are abundant in every period of the language.

Possessive adjective compounds, also, of the same form, are not very rare: examples are *yatásruc*, 'with offered bowl'; *sáryatvac*, 'sun-skinned'; *cátuspad*, 'four-footed; *suhárd*, 'kindhearted, friendly'; *rītyàp* (i. e. rīti-ap), 'having streaming waters'; *sahásradvār*, 'furnished with a thousand doors'.

The inflection of such compounds is like that of the simple root-stems, masculine and feminine being throughout the same, and the neuter varying only in the nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

Only rarely is a derivative feminine stem in \overline{i} formed; in the older language, only from the compounds with *ac* or añc (407 ff.), those with *han* :402), and those with *pad*, as *Ekapadī*, *dvipádī*.

Irregularities of inflection appear in the following:

402. The root han, 'slay', as final of a compound, is inflected somewhat like a derivative noun in an (below, **420** ff.), becoming $h\bar{a}$ in the nom. sing., and losing its n in the middle cases and its a in the weakest cases (but only optionally in the loc. sing.). Further, when the vowel is lost, h in contract with following n reverts to its original gh. Thus:

Singular.	Dual.	Plural.
N. v r trahá	vrtrahánāu	v ŗtr ahá ņ as
A. v r trahánam	(vitranaijau	vrtraghnás
I. v r traghná	1	v ŗtr ahábhis
D. v <u>r</u> traghné	v rtr ahábh yām	and a ab the burge
Ab. Justanaha (a		(vittanaonyas
G. Stinuginus	landraghnón	v r tragh n ấm
L. vrtraghní, -háni	(vitraginos	v ŗtrahásu
V. vŕtrahan	vrtrahaņāu	vŕtrahaņas.
	vrtraghnós	vrtrahásu

As to the change of n to n, see 193, 195.

A feminine is made by adding \bar{i} to, as usual, the stem-form shown in the weakest cases: thus, *ortraghni*.

An accus. pl. $-h\dot{a}nas$ (like the nom.) also occurs. Vytrahábhis (RV., once) is the only middle case-form quotable from the older language. Transitions to the *a*-declension begin already in the Veda: thus, to $-h\dot{a}$ (RV., AV.), $-ghn\dot{a}$ (RV.), -hana.

403. The root vah, 'carry', at the end of a compound is said by the grammarians to be lengthened to $v\bar{a}h$ in both the strong and middle cases, and contracted in the weakest cases to $\bar{u}h$, which with a preceding *a*-vowel becomes $\bar{a}u$ (137 d): thus, from havyaváh, 'sacrifice-bearing' (epithet of Agni), havyavát, havyaváham, havyāúhā, etc.; havyaváhāu, havyavádbhyām, havyāúhos; havyaváhas, havyāúhas, havyavádbhis, etc. And çvetaváh (not quotable is said to be further irregular in making the nom. sing. in ras and the vocative in ras or ras.

In the earlier language, only strong forms of compounds with rat have been found to occur: namely. -rái. -ráham. -ráhāu or -ráhā. and -ráhas. TS. has the irregular nom. sing. pastharát.

404. Of very irregular formation and inflection is one common compound of rah, namely anadráh anas + rah. burdenbearing or cart-drawing: i. e. ox. Its stem-form in the strong cases is anadráh. in the weakest anadúh. and in the middle anadúd perhaps by dissimilation from anadúd. Moreover. its nom. and voc. sing. are made in ran and ran as if from a rant-stem. Thus:

	Singular.	Dual.	Plural.
N.	anadrán	anadritāu	anad: 14:4
A.	anad dham) ansgrandu	anadrikas
I.	a n adúhā	1	anadiidhis
D.	an :dúhe	anadridbhyān.	anadúdskya
Ab.	anadúhae		Janoguasning
G.	(andianae	anadúhse	anidikam
L.	ancdúhi	anagunos	anadútsu
V.	Anad-an	ánadrāhāu	In adrāhas

Anadúdbheas AV., once is the only middle case-form quotable from the older language.

The corresponding feminine stem of very infrequent occurrence is either anaduhí CB., or anaduhí K..

405. The root sah, overcome, has in the Veda a double irregularity: its s is changeable to s even after an a-vowel — as also in its single acurrence as an independent adjective BV., train sit — while it sometimes remains unchanged after an i or u-vowel; and its a is either prolonged or remains unchanged, in both strong and weak cases. The quotable forms are -sit, -siham or -siham, -sihā, -sihe or -sihe, -sihas or -sihas or -sihas; -sihā du.; -sihās or -sihas.

408. The compound aray i_j (y.z., 'make offering', 'a certain priest' or (BR., 'a certain sacrifice', is said to form the nom, and voc. sing, $a_{i}a_{i}a_{i}a_{i}$, and to make its middle cases from $a_{i}a_{i}a_{i}a_{i}$.

Its only quotable form is arrayls, f. RV. and AV., each once. If the stem is a derivative from $ara \rightarrow y aj$. 'conciliate', arrayls is probably from ara + y y aj, which has the same meaning.

407. Compounds with anc or ac. The root a or anc makes, in combination with prepositions and other words. a considerable class of familiarly used adjectives, of quite irregular formation and inflection, in some of which it almost loses its character of root, and becomes an ending of derivation.

A part of these adjectives have only two stem-forms: a strong in ane yielding an, from anks. in nom. sing. masc.

and a weak in ac; others distinguish from the middle in ac a weakest stem in c, before which the a is contracted with a preceding i or u into \bar{i} or \bar{u} .

The feminine is made by adding \overline{i} to the stem-form used in the weakest cases, and is accented like them.

408. As examples of inflection we may take práñc, 'forward, east'; pratyáñc, 'backward, west'; víşvañc, 'going apart'. Singular:

N. V.	práň prák	pratyáñ pratyák	vísvañ vísvak
A .	práñcam prák	pratyáňcam pratyák	vísvañcam vísvak
I.	prácã	pratīcā	vișūcā
D.	práce	praticé	vlșūce
Ab. G.	prácas	praticás	víșūcas
L.	práci	praticf	vlșūci
Dual	:		
N. A. V.	práñcāu práci	pratyáñcāu pratici	<i>งโจงฉลิ</i> caิ น ง <i>โจนิc</i> เ
I. D. Ab.	prágbhyām	pratyágbhyām	vísvagbhyūm
G. L.	prácos	praticós	vísūcos
Plura	1:		
N. V.	práñcas práñci	pratyáñcus pratyáñci	vísvañcas vísvañci
A .	prácas práñci	pratīcās pratyáñci	vísūcas vísvañci
I.	prágbhis	pratyágbhis	visvagbhis
D. Ab.	prágbhyas	pratyágbhyas	visvagbhyas
G.	prácām	pratīcām	vișūcām
L.	práksu	pratyáksu	visvaksu

The feminine stems are práci, pratici, vișuci, respectively.

No example of the middle forms excepting the nom. etc. sing. neut. (and this generally used as adverb) is found either in RV. or AV. In the same texts is lacking the nom. etc. pl. neut. in *ñci*; but of this a number of examples occur in the Brāhmaņas: thus, prā*ňci*, pratyá*ňci*, arvā*ňci*, samyá*ňci*, sadhrya*ňci*, anva*ňci*.

409. a. Like práňc are inflected ápāñc, ávāñc, párāňc, arváňc, adharáňc, and others of rare occurrence.

b. Like pratyáñc are inflected nyàñc (i. e. níañc), samyáñc (sam + añc, with irregularly inserted i), and údañc (weakest stem údic: ud + anc, with *i* inserted in weakest cases only), with a few other rare stems.

c. Like vișvanc is inflected anvánc, also three or four others of which only isolated forms occur.

d. Still more irregular is *tiryáñc*, of which the weakest stem is *tirácc* (*tirás* + *ac*: the other stems are made from tir + anc or *ac*, with the inserted *i*).

410. The accentuation of these words is irregular, as regards both the stems themselves and their inflected forms. Sometimes the one element has

the tone and sometimes the other, without any apparent reason for the difference. If the compound is accented on the final syllable, the accent is shifted in RV. to the ending in the weakest cases provided their stem shows the contraction to $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} : thus, $pr\dot{a}c\bar{u}$, $arv\dot{a}c\bar{a}$, $adhar\dot{a}cas$, but $pratic\dot{a}$, $an\bar{u}c\dot{a}s$, $sam\bar{c}c\dot{l}$. But AV. and later texts usually keep the accent upon the stem: thus, $prat\dot{c}c\bar{\imath}$, $an\dot{u}c\bar{c}$, (RV. has $prat\dot{c}c\bar{u}m$ once). The change of accent to the endings, and even in polysyllabic stems, is against all usual analogy.

B. Derivative stems in as, is, us.

411. The stems of this division are prevailingly neuter; but there are also a few masculines, and a single feminine.

412. The stems in घ्रस् as are quite numerous, and mostly made with the suffix घ्रस् as (a small number also with तस् tas and नस् nas, and some are obscure); the others are few, and almost all made with the suffixes इस् is and उस् us.

413. Their inflection is almost entirely regular. But masculine and feminine stems in $\exists i \dashv as$ lengthen the vowel of the ending in nom. sing.; and the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neut. make the same prolongation (of $\exists a \text{ or } \xi i \text{ or } \exists u$) before the inserted nasal (anusvāra).

414. Examples of declension. As examples we may take मनम् manas, n., 'mind'; म्राङ्ग्रिम् angiras, m., 'An-giras'; रुविम् havis, n., 'libation'.

Sin	gular :		
N.	मनम् mánas	म्रङ्गिरास् ^{dīn} girās	रुविम् havis
	manas		havis
A.	मनस्	म्रङ्गिरसम्	रुविम्
	mánas	ángirasam	havis
I.	मनमा	म्रङ्गिरमा	रुविषा
	mánasā	áñgirasā	havlṣā
D.	मनमे	म्रङ्गिरमे	रुविषे
	mánase	angirase	havişe
Ab. G.	मनमम्	ग्रङ्गिरमम्	क् विषम्
	mánasas	ángirasas	harisas

L. V.	मनमि ^{mánasi} मनम्	म्रङ्गिरमि ^{dīngirasi} म्रङ्गिरम्	रुविषि <i>havlşi</i> रुविम्
	mánas	áñgiras	hávis
Dual	:		
N. A. V.	मनसी	म्रङ्गि	रुविषी
	mánasi	ángirasāu	haviși
I. D. Ab.	मनोभ्याम्	म्रङ्गिरोभ्याम्	क् विर्भ्याम्
	mánobhyām	ángirobhyā m	havirbhyām
G. L.	मनसोस्	म्रङ्गिरसोम्	रु विषोम्
	mánasos	dīngirasos	havisos
Plur	nl :		
N. A. V.	मनांसि	म्रङ्गिरमम्	रुवीषि
	mánānsi	áñgirasas	havinși
I.	मनोभिम्	म्बङ्गिरोभिम्	क्विर्भिम्
	mánobhis	angirobhis	havirbhis
D. Ab.	मनोभ्यस्	म्रङ्गिरोभ्यस्	रूवि र्भ्यम्
	mánobhyas	ángirobhyas	havirbhyas
6.	मनसाम्	म्रङ्गिरसाम्	रुविषाम्
	mánasām	dīngirasām	havísām
L.	मनःस्	म्रङ्गिरःम्	क्विःष्
	mánaķsu	angirahsu	havíķsu

In like manner, चतुम् cákşus, n., 'eye', forms चतुषा cákşuşā, चतुर्भ्याम् cákşurbhyām, चतूषि cákşūnhşi, and so on.

415. Vedic irregularities. a. The masc. and fem. du. ending \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$ is as usual elsewhere; — b. The fem. usás, 'dawn', often prolongs its a in the other strong cases (besides nom. sing.): thus, usásam, usásā, usásas. In instr. pl. occurs (RV., once) usádbhis instead of usóbhis (only quotable example of a middle case). From töçás is once found (RV.) in like manner the du. toçásā; — c. Janús has the nom. sing. masc. janús, like an as-stem; — d. From svávas and svátavas occur in RV. nom. sing. masc. in vān; — e. One or two apparently contracted forms — thus, vedhám for vedhásam, and surádhās for surádhasas, nom. pl. — are met with.

416. The grammarians regard using, m., as regular stem-form of the proper name noticed above (355 a), but give it the irregular nom. usin \bar{a} and the voc. using or using or using or using the norms from the as-stem, even nom., are sometimes met with in the later literature.

As to forms from as-stems to ahan or ahar and adhan or adhar, see below, 430.

Adjectives.

417. A few neuter nouns in as with accent on the radical syllable have corresponding adjectives or appellatives in ás, with accent on the ending: thus, for example, ápas, 'work', apás, 'active'; táras, 'quickness', tarás, 'quick'; yáças, 'beauty', yaçás, 'beauteous'. A few other similar adjectives — as tavás, 'mighty', vedhás, 'pious' — are without corresponding nouns.

Original adjectives in *is* do not occur. But in *us* are found as many adjectives as nouns (about ten of each class); and in several instances adjective and noun stand side by side, without difference of accent such as appears in the stems in *as*: e. g. *tápus*, 'heat' and 'hot'; *vápus*, 'wonder' and 'wonderful'.

418. Adjective compounds having nouns of this division as final member are very common: thus, sumánas, 'favorably minded'; dirgháyus, 'long-lived'; cukráçocis, 'having brilliant brightness'. The stem-form is the same for all genders, and each gender is inflected in the usual manner, the stems in as making their nom. sing. masc. and fem. in ās (like áñgiras, above). Thus, from sumánas, the nom. and accus. are as follows:

singular. dual. plural. m. f. n. m. f. n. m. f. n. N. sumánās -nas A. sumánasam -nas

and the other cases (save the vocative) are alike in all genders.

From dirgháyus, in like manner:

1.	d īr gh áyu ṣū	dīrg há yurbhyām	d īrgh Áy ur bhis
	etc.	etc.	etc.
N. A.		dīrgháyuşāu -yuşī	dīrgháyuṣas -yūǹṣi

419. The stem anchás, 'unrivalled' (defined as meaning 'time' in the later language), forms the nom. sing. masc. and fem. anchá.

C. Derivative stems in an.

420. The stems of this division are those made by the three suffixes = an, मन man, and = van, together with a few of more questionable etymology which are inflected like them. They are masculine and neuter only.

421. The stem has a triple form. In the strong cases of the masculine. the vowel of the ending is prolonged to

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म्रा \bar{a} ; in the weakest cases it is in general struck out altogether; in the middle cases, or before a case-ending beginning with a consonant, the final $\bar{\gamma}$ *n* is dropped. The $\bar{\gamma}$ *n* is also lost in the nom. sing. of both genders (leaving म्रा \bar{a} as final in the masculine, म *a* in the neuter).

The peculiar cases of the neuter follow the usual analogy (311): the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. have the lengthening to $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ as strong cases; the nom.-acc.-voc. du., as weakest cases, have the loss of $\overline{\mathfrak{A}} a$ — but this only optionally, not necessarily.

In the loc. sing. also, the a may be either rejected or retained (compare the corresponding usage with r-stems: **373**). And after the m or v of man or van, when these are preceded by another consonant, the a is always retained, to avoid a too great accumulation of consonants.

422. The vocative sing. is in masculines the pure stem; in neuters, either this or like the nominative. The rest of the inflection requires no description.

423. As to accent, it needs only to be remarked that when, in the weakest cases, an acute d of the suffix is lost, the tone is thrown forward upon the ending.

424. Examples of declension. As such may be taken राजन *råjan*, m., 'king'; म्रात्मन् *ātmán*, m., 'soul, self'; नामन् *nāman*, n., 'name'. Thus:

Si	ngular :		
N.	राजा	म्रात्मा	नाम
	rájā	ātmā	náma
А.	राजानम्	म्रात्मानम्	নাদ
	rājānam	ātmānam	náma
I.	राज्ञा	म्रात्मना	नाम्रा
	rajñā	ā <i>tmán</i> ā	námnā
D.	राज्ञे rájñe	म्रात्मने	नाम्ने
	rájñe	ātmáne	nämne
Ab. G.	राज्ञम्	म्रात्मनस्	नाम्नस्
	rajñas	म्रात्मनस् ātmánas	ntimnas

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V. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

L. V.	राज्ञि, राजनि rájňi, rájani राजन् rájan	म्रात्मनि ^{ātmáni} म्रात्मन् átman	नाम्नि, नामनि námni, námani नामन्, नाम náman, náma
Du	al:		
N. A. V.	राजानी	म्रात्मानी	नाम्री, नामनी
	rájānāu	ātmānāu	námnī, námanī
I. D. Ab.	राजभ्याम्	म्रात्मभ्याम्	नामभ्याम्
	rájabhyām	ātmábhyām	námabhyām
G. L.	रात्तीम्	म्रात्मनोस्	नाम्रोस्
	rájños	ātmános	námnos
Plu	iral:		-
N.	राजानम्	म्रात्मानस्	नामानि
	rájānas	ātmānas	námāni
Α.	राज्ञस्	म्रात्मनस्	नामानि
	rájñas	ātmánas	námāni
I.	राजभिम्	म्रात्मभिस्	नामभिम्
	rájabhis	ātmábhis	námabhis
D. Ab.	राजभ्यम्	म्रात्मभ्यस्	नामभ्यस्
	rájabhyas	ātmábhyas	námabhyas
G.	राज्ञाम्	म्रात्मनाम्	नाम्राम्
	rájñām	ātmánām	námnām
L.	राजमु	म्रात्ममु	नामसु
	råjasu	ātmásu	námasu

The weakest cases of mūrdhán, m., 'head', would be accented mūrdhná, mūrdhné, mūrdhnós, mūrdhnás (acc. pl.), mūrdhnám, etc.; and so in all similar cases (loc. sing., mūrdhní or mūrdhání).

425. Vedic Irregularities. **a.** Here, as elsewhere, the ending of the nom.-acc.-voc. du. masc. is usually \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.

b. The briefer form (with ejected a) of the loc. sing., and of the neut. nom. etc. du., is almost unknown to the older language. RV. writes once *catadávni*, but it is to be read *catadávani*; and a few similar cases occur in AV. In the Brāhmanas also, such forms as *dhāmani* and *sāmanī* are much more common than such as *ahni* and *lomnī*.

c. But throughout both Veda and Brāhmaņa, an abbreviated form of the loc. sing., with the ending *i* omitted, or identical with the stem, is common (in RV., of considerably more frequent occurrence than the regular form): thus, mūrdhán, kárman, ádhvan, beside mūrdháni etc.

d. In the nom.-acc. pl. neut., also, an abbreviated form is common. ending in \bar{a} or (twice as often) *a*, instead of $\bar{a}ni$: thus, bráhma and bráhmā, beside bráhmāņi: compare the similar series of endings from *a*-stems, **329**.

e. From a few stems in man is made an abbreviated inst. sing., with loss of m as well as of a: thus, makiná, prathiná, variņá, dāná, preņá, bhūmá, for mahimná etc. And drūghmá (RV., once) is perhaps (Grassmann) for drūghmáņā.

f. Other of the weakest cases than the loc. sing. are sometimes found with the *a* of the suffix retained: thus, for example, *bhumanā*, *dámane*. yámanas, *uksáņas* (accus. pl.), etc. In the infinitive datives — *trámame*. *vidmáne*, *dāváne*, etc. — the *a* always remains. Still more numerous are the instances in which the *a*, omitted in the written form of the text. is. as the metre shows, to be restored in reading.

g. The voc. sing. in vas, which is the usual Vedic form from steme in vant (below, 453 b), is found also from a few in van, perhaps by a transfer to the vant-declension: thus, *flāvas*, *evayāvas*. *khidvas*(?, *prātaritvae*, *mātariçvas*, *vibhāvas*.

For words of which the a is not made long in the strong cases. See the next paragraph, **b**.

428. A few stems do not make the regular lengthening of a in the strong cases (except the nom. sing.. Thus:

a. The names of divinities, pusan and aryamán: thus, pusa, pusan, pusan, etc.

b. In the Veda, uksán, 'bull' (but RV. uksánam ouce; yósun, 'mamer vísan, 'virile, bull' (but vísänam and vísänas are also met with amer abbreviation of $\bar{a}tmán$; and two or three other scattering forms anaryment, jémanā. And in a number of additional instances, the Veda metre sent to demand a where \bar{a} is written.

427. The stems *çván*, m., 'dog', and *yúvan*. youn: ______ in the weakest cases the contracted form *çún* and <u>midd</u>. ______ retention of the accent; in the strong and <u>midd</u>. ______ are regular. Thus, *çvá*, *çvánam*, *çúnā*, *çúse*. et.

In dual, RV. has once yünā for yúzānā.

428. The stem maghávan, 'generous inter and a name of Indra, is contracted in the weaker are thus. maghávā, maghávānam, maghávā maghána

The RV, has once the weak form magnime

430. a. The stem *dhan*, n., 'day', is in the later language used only in the strong and weakest cases, the middle (with the nom. sing., which usually follows their analogy) coming from *dhar* or *dhas*: namely, *dhar* nom.-acc. sing., *dhobhyām*, *dhobhis*, etc. (PB. has *aharbhis*); but *dhnā* etc., *dhni* or *dhani*, *dhnī* or *dhanī*, *dhāni* (and, in V., *dhā*). In composition, only *ahar* or *ahas* is used as preceding member; as final member, *ahar*, *ahas*, *ahan*, or the derivatives *aha*, *ahna*.

In the oldest language, the middle cases *áhabhis*, *áhabhyas*, *áhasu* also occur.

b. The stem údhan, n., 'udder', exchanges in like manner, in the old language, with údhar and údhas, but has become later an as-stem only (except in the fem. ūdhnī of adjective compounds): thus, údhar or údhas (so RV.: AV. only the latter), údhnas, údhan or údhani, údhabhis, údhahsu.

431. The neuter stems $ak_s dn$, 'eye', asth dn, 'bone', dadh dn, 'curd', sakth dn, 'thigh', form in the later language only the weakest cases, $ak_s n d$, asth n e, dadh n ds, sakth n or sakth dn i, and so on; the rest of the inflection is made from stems in *i*, $dk_s i$ etc.: see above, **3431**.

In the older language, other cases from the an-stems occur: thus, aksáni and aksábhis; astháni, asthábhis, and asthábhyas; saktháni.

482. The neuter stems asán, 'blood', yakán, 'liver', çakán, 'ordure', āsán, 'mouth', udán, 'water', doşán, 'fore-arm', yūṣán, 'broth', are required to make their nom.-acc.-voc. in all numbers from the parallel stems ásrj, yákrt, çákrt, āsyà, údaka (in older language udaká), dós, yūṣa, which are fully inflected.

Earlier occurs also the dual dosáni.

433. The stem *pánthan*, m., 'road', is reckoned in the later language as making the complete set of strong cases, with the irregularity that the nom.-voc. sing. adds a s. The corresponding middle cases are made from *pathi*, and the weakest from *path*. Thus:

from pánthan — pánthās, pánthānam; pánthānāu; pánthānas; from pathi — pathibhyām; pathibhis, pathibhyas, pathişu;

from path — pathá, pathé, pathás, pathí; pathós; pathás (accus.), pathám.

In the oldest language (RV.), however, the strong stem is only panthā: thus, panthās, nom. sing.; panthām, acc. sing.; panthās, nom. pl.; and even in AV., panthānam and panthānas are rare compared with the others. From pathi occur also the nom. pl. pathiyas and gen. pl. pathīnām. RV. has once pāthās, acc. pl., with long \bar{a} .

434. The stems manthun, m., 'stirring-stick', and ybhuksan, m., an epithet of Indra, are given by the grammarians the same inflection with painthan; but only a few cases have been found in use. In V. occur from

the former the acc. sing. mantham, and gen. pl. mathindm (like the corresponding cases from panthan); from the latter, the nom. sing. rbhuksas and voc. pl. rbhuksas, like the corresponding Vedic forms of panthan; but also the acc. sing. rbhuksánam and nom. pl. rbhuksánas, which are after quite another model.

Adjectives.

435. Original adjective stems in an are almost exclusively those in van, as ydjvan, 'sacrificing', sutvan, 'pressing the soma'. jitvan, 'conquering'. The stem is masc. and neut. only (two or three sporadic cases of its use as fem. occur in RV.); the corresponding fem. stem is made in varī: thus, ydjvarī, jitvarī.

436. Adjective compounds having a noun in an as final member are inflected after the model of noun-stems; and the masculine forms are said to be allowed in use also as feminine; but usually a special feminine is made by adding \overline{i} to the weakest form of the masculine stem : thus, durnamni, somarājni.

437. But nouns in an occuring as final members of compounds often lose the n. or substitute a stem in a for that in an: thus, $-r\bar{a}/a$, -adhva, -aha; the corresponding feminine is in \bar{a} . And feminines in \bar{a} , replacing an, are allowed to be widely formed in the compounds of this division.

The remaining divisions of the consonantal declension are made up of adjective stems only.

D. Derivative stems (adjective) in in.

438. The stems of this division are those formed with the suffixes रन् in, मिन् min, and चिन् vin. They are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine being made by adding \overline{z} \overline{i} .

The stems in in are numerous, since almost any noun in a in the language may form a possessive derivative adjective with this suffix : thus, bála, 'strength', balin, m. n., balini, f., 'possessing strength, strong'. Stems in vin, however, are very few, and those in min still fewer.

439. Their inflection is quite regular, except that they lose their final $\neg n$ in the middle cases before an initial consonant of the ending), and also in the nom. sing., where the masculine lengthens the ξ i by way of compensation. The voc. sing. is in the masculine the bare stem; in the neuter, either this or the nominative.

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In all these respects, it will be noticed, the *m*-declension agrees with the an-declension; it differs from the latter only in never losing the vowel of the ending.

440. Example of inflection. As such may be taken बलिन balin, 'strong'. Thus:

		8	
	Singular.	Dual.	Plural.
	m. n.	m. n.	m. n.
N.	बली बलि		
	bali bali	वलिनी बलिनी	बलिनम् बलीनि
A .	बलिनम् वलि	balināu balinī	balinas ba lin i
	balinam bali		
I .	बलिना		बलिभिम्
	balínā		balibhis
D.	बलिने	बलिभ्याम्)
	baline	balibhyām	(वलिभ्यम्
	1	Canolyani	(balibhyas
Ab.	बलिनम्)
	balinas	,	
G.)		बलिनाम्
		वलिनोम्	ba lín ām`
L. .	ৰলিনি	balinos	`वलिष्
	balini)	balișu
v.	बलिन् बलिन्, बरि bálin bálin, bál		बलिनस् बलीनि bálinas bálini

The derived feminine stem in ini is inflected, of course, like any other feminine in derivative \overline{i} (865).

441. There are no irregularities in the inflection of instems, in either the earlier language or the later - except the usual Vedic dual ending in \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.

E. Derivative stems (adjective) in ant (or at).

442. These stems fall into two sub-divisions: 1. those made by the suffix म्रस् ant (or म्रत् at), being, with a very few exceptions, active participles, present and future; 2. those made by the possessive suffixes मन् mant and वस् vant (or मत् mat and चत् vat). They are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine is made by adding 5 i.

1. Participles in ant or at.

443. The stem has in general a double form, a stronger and a weaker, ending respectively in Eng ant and Eng at. The former is taken in the strong cases of the masculine, with, as usual, the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neuter; the latter is taken by all the remaining cases.

But, in accordance with the rule for the formation of the feminine stem (below, 449), the future participles, and the present participles of verbs of the *tud*-class or accented \hat{a} -class (752), and of verbs of the *ad*-class or rootclass ending in \bar{a} , are by the grammarians allowed to make the nom.-acc.voc. du. from either the stronger or the weaker stem; and the present participles from all other present-stems ending in *a* are required to make the same from the strong stem.

444. Those verbs, however, which in the 3d pl. pres. active lose $\neg n$ of the usual ending $\widehat{i} \neg nti$ (550) lose it also in the present participle, and have no distinction of strong and weak stem.

Such are the verbs forming their present-stem by reduplication without added a: namely, those of the reduplicating or hu-class (655) and the intensives (1012): thus, from γ hu, present-stem juhu, participle-stem juhvat; intensive-stem johu, intensive participle-stem juhvat. Further, the participles of roots apparently containing a contracted reduplication: namely, cákşat, dáçat, dásat, cásat, sáçcat; and the sorist participle dhákşat. Vāvydhânt (BV., once), which has the n notwithstanding its reduplication, comes, like the desiderative participles (1032), from a stem in a: compare vāvydhânta, vāvydhâsva.

Even these verbs are allowed by the grammarians to make the nom.acc.-voc. pl. neut. in anti.

446. Stems accented on the final syllable throw the accent forward upon the case-ending in the weakest cases (not in the middle also).

In the dual neut. (as in the feminine stem) from such participles, the accent is dn# if the n is retained, dx if it is lost.

447. Examples of declension. As such may serve

भवस् bhávant, 'being'; घट्स् adánt, 'eating'; जुद्धत् júhvat, 'sacrificing'. Thus:

	Singular :					
N.	ਮ ਰਜ੍ bhávan	শ বন্ bhárat	म्रट्न् adán	म्रदत् adát	नुद्धत् júhvat	नुद्धत् júhvat
A .	भवत्तम् bhárantam	भवत् bhávat	म्रदत्तम् adántan	म्रदत् n adát	नुद्धतम् júhratan	नुकृत् njúheat
I.	भवता bhárai		म्रदत		ন্তুন্ধন <i>júh</i> ra	π
D.	भवते bhávai	le	म्रद्ते adate	é	जुन्द्वते júhva	te
АЪ. G.	भवतम् bhávai		म्रद्त adate		नुक्त júhea	म् tas
L.		ti	म्रद्रि adata	T	जुद्धति júhva	
v.	भवन् भव bhávan bhá		म्रदन् म्र ádan ád	दत् lat	जुन्तुत् júhta	T
	Dual:					
N. A. V.	भवत्ती bhávantāu	भवत्ती bhávantī	म्रद्ती adántā	म्रद्ती u adati	नुकती júhvatāu	नुद्धती júhvati
I. D. Ab.	শবদ্যা bhávai	म् ibhyām		ाम् bhyām	तुद्ध द júhva	ाम् dbhyām
G. L.	भवतोर bhárai	म् '०१	म्रदतो adata	म् ७	नुद्धत júhva	
	Plural :					
N. V.	भवत्तम् bhávantas	भवत्ति bhávanti	म्रदत्तम् adántas	म्रद्ति adánti	नुद्धतम् júhvatas	जुद्धति júhvati
A .	भवतम् bhávatas	भवत्ति bhávanti	म्रदतम् adatás	म्रद्ति adánti	नुद्धतम् júhvatas	नुद्धति júhvati
I.	- भवद्भि bhávad	Ą Ibhis	म्रद्दि adád	तम् bhis	तुद्धदि júhva	रम् dbhis
D. Ab.	भवझा bháva	Į Ibhyas	म्रद्र झ adád	म् bhyas	तुद्ध júhra	ाम् dbhyas

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G.	भवताम्	म्रदताम्	नुक्ताम्
	bhávatām	adatám	júhvatām
L.	भवत्मु	म्रदत्मु	जुन्तूत्मु
	bhávatsu	adátsu	júhvatsu

The future participle bhavisyánt may form in nom. etc. dual neuter either bhavisyántī or bhavisyati; tudánt, either tudántī or tudati; yánt $(\gamma y \bar{a})$, either yántī or yāti. And júhvat, in nom. etc. plural neuter, may make also júhvanti (beside júhvati. as given in the paradigm above).

But these strong forms (as well as bh dvanti, du., and its like from present-stems in unaccented a) are quite contrary to general analogy, and of somewhat doubtful character. No Vedic example of them is found; nor have they been noticed anywhere in the older language. The cases concerned, indeed, would be everywhere of rare occurrence.

448. The Vedic deviations from the model as above given are few. The dual ending $\bar{a}u$ is only one sixth as common as \bar{a} . Anomalous accent is seen in a case or two: *acodáte* and *rathirāyátām*. The only instance in V. of nom. etc. pl. neut. is *sánti*, with lengthened \bar{a} : compare the forms in *-mānti* and *-vānti*, below, **454c**.

449. The feminine participle-stem, as already stated, is made by adding $\frac{5}{\xi} \bar{\imath}$ to either the strong or the weak stem-form of the masc.-neut. The rules as to which of the two forms shall be taken are the same with those given above respecting the nom. etc. dual neuter; namely:

a. Participles from tense-stems ending in unaccented a add \overline{i} to the strong stem-form, or make their feminine in anti.

Such are the $bh\bar{u}$ or unaccented *a*-class and the $d\bar{v}v$ or ya-class of present-stems (chap. IX.), and the desideratives and causatives (chap. XIV.): thus, from $\gamma bh\bar{u}$ (stem bháva), bhávantī; from $\gamma d\bar{v}v$ (stem divya), divyantī; from búbhūșa and bhāváya (desid. and caus. of $\gamma bh\bar{u}$), búbhūșantī and bhāváyantī.

Exceptions to this rule are rare. RV. has takeati and jarati; Bopp (Gr., 530) quotes a few cases from the Nala. The AV. jivanti, with irregular accent, is doubtless to be regarded as a proper name.

b. Participles from tense-stems in accented á may add the feminine-sign either to the strong or to the weak stem-form, or may make their feminines in ánti or in all (with accent as nere noted).

Such are the present-stems of the tud or accented \hat{a} -class (chap. IX.), the s-futures (chap. XII.), and the denominatives (chap. XIV.): thus, from γ tud (stem tud \hat{a} ; tud $\hat{a}nt\bar{i}$ or tud $at\bar{f}$; from bhavisy \hat{a} (fut. of γ bh \bar{u}), bhavisy $\hat{a}nt\bar{i}$ or bhavisy $at\bar{i}$; from devay \hat{a} (denom. of dev \hat{a}), devay $\hat{a}nt\bar{i}$ or devayat \bar{t} .

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The forms in anti from this class are the prevailing ones. No future fem. participle in ati is quotable from the older language. From pres.-stems in a are found there *räjati* and *sincati* (RV.), *tudati* and *pinvati* (AV.). From denominatives, devayati (RV.), durasyati and *catriyati* (AV.).

Verbs of the *ad* or root-class (chap. IX.) ending in \bar{a} are given by the grammarians the same option as regards the feminine of the present participle: thus, from $\gamma/y\bar{a}$, $y\dot{a}nt\bar{i}$ or $y\bar{a}t\bar{t}$. The older language affords no example of the former, so far as noted.

c. From other tense-stems than those already specified — that is to say, from the remaining classes of present-stems and from the intensives — the feminine is formed in ati (or, if the stem be otherwise accented than on the final, in ati) only.

Thus, adati from $\forall ad$; júhvati from $\forall hu$; yuňjati from $\forall yuj$; sunvati from $\forall su$; kurvati from $\forall br$; krimati from $\forall kri$; dédiçati from dédiç (intens. of $\forall di$;).

Exceptions are occasionally met with in the later language, as dvisanti (M.), rudanti and kurvanti (N.). And AV. has yanti once.

450. A few words are participial in form and inflection, though not in meaning. Thus:

a. brhánt (often written vrhánt in the later language), 'great': it is inflected like a participle (with brhatí and brhánt in du. and pl. neut.).

b. mahánt, 'great'; inflected like a participle, but with the irregularity that the a of the ending is lengthened in the strong forms: thus, mahán, mahántam; mahántāu (neut. mahatí); mahántas, mahánti: instr. mahatá etc.

c. prisant, 'speckled', and (in Veda only) ruçant, 'shining'.

d. jágat, 'movable, lively' (in the later language, as neuter noun, 'world'), a reduplicated formation from \sqrt{gam} , 'go'; its nom. etc. neut. pl. is allowed by the grammarians to be only jáganti.

•. rhánt, 'small' (only once, in RV., rhate).

All these form their feminine in at only: thus, brhat, mahati, prisati and rúçati (contrary to the rule for participles), jágati.

For ddnt, 'tooth', which is perhaps of participial origin, see above, 398.

451. The pronominal adjectives *iyant* and *kiyant* are inflected like adjectives in *mant* and *vant*, having (**452**) *iyān* and *kiyān* as nom. masc. sing., *iyat* and *kiyat* as nom. etc. du. nent. and as feminine stems, and *iyanti* and *kiyanti* as nom. etc. plur. neut.

But the neut. pl. iyanti and the loc. sing. (?) kiyati are found in RV.

2. Possessives in mant and vant.

452. The adjectives formed by these two suffixes are

inflected precisely alike, and very nearly like the participles in \overline{unt} . From the latter they differ only by lengthening the \overline{u} a in the nom. sing. masc.

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The voc. sing. is in an, like that of the participle (in the later language, namely: for that of the oldest, see below, **454** b). The neut. nom. etc. are in the dual only ati (or dti), and in the plural anti (or dnti).

The feminine is always made from the weak stem: thus, mati, vati (or máti, váti).

The accent, however, is never (as in the participle) thrown forward upon the case-ending or the feminine ending.

453. To illustrate the inflection of such stems it will be sufficient to give a part of the forms of पश्रमस् paçumánt, 'possessing cattle', and भगवस् bhágavant, 'fortunate, blessed'. Thus:

A 11 40 .				
	Singular: m.	n.	m.	n.
N.	प्रभुमान्	प्रमुमत्	મગવાન	भगवत्
	paçumān	paçumát	bhágavān	bhágavat
A .	प्रमृत्तम्	प्रमुमत्	भगवत्तम्	भगवत्
•	paçumántam	paçumát	bhágavantam	bhágavat
	प्रम	না	ਮਸਕਰ	
	. J	mátā	bhágai	
		t c.	ete	
v .	ঀয়৸ঀ৾৾ঀ	प्रमुमत्	শ্যাবন্	भगवत्
	páçuman ·	páçumat	bhágavan	bhágavat
	Dual:	_	-	
N. A. V.	प्रमुमत्ती	प्रमुमती	भगवत्ती	ਮगवती
	paçumántāu	paçumáti	bhágavantāu	bhágavati
	eta		etc.	
	Plural:			
N. V.	पृष्रुमत्तम्	पशुमात्त	भगवत्तम्	ਮੰਸਕਜਿ
	paçumántas	paçumánti	bhágavantas	bhága vanti
А.	प्रम्मतम्	पश्रुमत्ति	भगवतम्	ਮगवत्ति
	paçumátas	paçumánti	bhágavatas	bhág avanti
I.	प्रमुमिहस		भगवद्मि	
	paçumádbhis		bhág avaðbhis	
	etc.			

454. Vedic Irregularities. **a.** In dual masc. nom. etc., \bar{a} (for $\bar{a}u$) is the greatly prevailing ending.

b. In voc. sing. masc., the ending in the oldest language (RV.) is almost always in as instead of an (as in the perfect participle: below, **462** a): thus, adrivas, harivas, bhānumas, havişmas. Such vocatives in RV. occur more than a hundred times, while not a single unquestionable instance of one in an is to be found. In the other Vedic texts, vocatives in as are extremely rare (but bhagavas and its contraction bhagos are met with, even in the later language); and in their reproduction of RV. passages the as is usually changed to an.

It was pointed out above (425 g) that the RV. makes the voc. in as also apparently from a few an-stems.

c. In RV., the nom. etc. pl. neut., in the only two instances that occur, ends in *ānti* instead of *anti*: thus, *ghrtávānti*. paçumánti. No such forms have been noted elsewhere in the older language: the SV. reads *anti* in its version of the corresponding passages, and a few examples of the same ending are quotable from the Brāhmanas: thus, *tāvanti*, *etávanti*, *yávanti*, *pravanti*, *rtumanti*, *yugmanti*. Compare **448**, **451**.

d. In a few (eight or ten) more or less doubtful cases, a confusion of strong and weak forms of stem is made: they are too purely sporadic to require reporting. The same is true of a case or two where a masculine form appears to be used with a feminine noun (see Lanman).

455. The stem *árvant*, 'running, steed', has the nom. sing. *árvā*, from *árvan*; and in the older language also the voc. *arvan* and accus. *árvānam*.

456. Besides the participle *bhávant*, there is another stem *bhávant*, frequently used in respectful address as substitute for the pronoun of the second person (but construed, of course. with a verb in the third person), which is formed with the suffix *vant*, and so declined, having in the nom. sing. *bhárān*; and the contracted form *bhos* of its old-style vocative *bhavas* is a common exclamation of address: 'you, sir!' Its origin is variously explained; it is most probably a contraction of *bhágavant*.

457. The pronominal adjectives távant, etávant, yávant, and the Vedic *ivant, mávant, tvávant, etc., are inflected like ordinary derivatives from nouns.*

F. Perfect Participles in $v\bar{a}\dot{n}s$.

458. The active participles of the perfect tense-system are quite peculiar as regards the modifications of their stem. In the strong cases, including the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neut., the form of their suffix is $\exists i \notin vais$, which becomes. by regular process (150. $v\bar{a}n$ in the nom. sing.. and which is shortened to F can in the voc. sing. In the weakest cases. the suffix is contracted into I up. In the middle cases. including the nom.-acc.-voc. neut. sing., it is changed to F cat.

A mich-vowel i. if present in the strong and middle cases, disappears in the weakest, before eq.

450. The forms as thus described are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine is made by adding $\frac{1}{2}$ i to the weakers form of stem, ending thus in $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4}$ is.

400. The assent is always upon the suffix winterver be its from

451. Examples of inflection. To show the inflection of these participles, we may take the stems factor redonant knowing which has irregular loss of the usual reduplication and of the perfect meaning from y fact oil; and affective institution insting store, from y fact side

STREET, ST.

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:	रहते	Tuisto: Unada. Tostoros. Artesto Tosto uni
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154	NOUNS AND A	DJECTIVES. [461-
I. D. Ab.	विद्रद्याम्	तस्त्रिवद्याम्
	rid r ádb hyām	tasthiv é dbhyām
G. L.	विदुषोम्	तस्युषोस्
	ridúsos	tasthúsos
	Plural :	
N. V.	विद्यांसम् विद्यांसि	तस्थिवांसस् तस्थिवांसि
	ridránsas ridránsi	tasthivänsas tasthivänsi
A .	विट्उयम् विदांसि	तस्युपम् तस्थिवांसि
	ridúsas ridránsi	tasthúsas lasthivánsi
1.	विद्वद्मिम्	तस्थिवद्मिम्
	ridrádbhis	tasthivádbhis
D. Ab.	विदद्यम्	तस्थिवद्यम्
	ridrádbhyas	tasthivádbhyas
G.	विदुषाम्	तस्युषाम्
	ridúșā m	tasthúṣām
L.	विद्वत्सु	तस्थिवत्स्
	videatsu	tasthivátsu

The feminine stems of these two participles are विद्वषी eidilei and तस्युषी tasthusi.

Other examples of the different stems are: from y kr — cakreins, cakreit, cakris, cakris; from y ni — ninīrtins, ninīrti, ninyús, ninyús; from y blü — babhūrtins, babhūrti, babhūvús, babhūvúsī; from y hm -- tenirtins, tenirti, tenis, tenisī.

463. a. In the oldest language (RV.), the vocative sing. masc. (like that of comt and mont-stoms: above, 454 b) has the ending vas instead of comt thus, riddings (changed to -van in a parallel passage of AV.), titirvas, didings, middings, middings,

b. Forms from the middle stem, in vai, are extremely rare earlier: usily three Astronychi and varytridt, neut. sing., and jügroüdbhis, instr. pl.), are found in KV., and not one in AV. And in the Veda the weakest stem and not the middle one, as later, is made the basis of comparison: thus, undistance, middlejourne.

6. An example or two of the use of the weak stem-form for cases significantly made from the strong are found in RV.: they are cakrisam, acc. sing., and deckayments, nom. pl.; smugdm, by its accent (unless an error), is takker from a derivative stem emergi: and CB. has prograam. Similar instances, expectally from videvites, are now and then met with later (see BR., under products). d. The AV. has once bhaktivánsus, as if a participial form from a noun; but K. and TB. give in the corresponding passage bhaktivánas; cakhvánsam (RV., once) is of doubtful character; okivánsü (RV., once) shows a reversion to guttural form of the final of γuc , elsewhere unknown.

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G. Comparatives in yas.

463. The comparative adjectives of primary formation (below, 467) have a double form of stem for masculine and neuter: a stronger, ending in यांस् yāns (usually ईयांस् रंप्रवंगंs), in the strong cases, and a weaker, in यस् yas (or ईयस् रंप्रुवs), in the weak cases (there being no distinction of middle and weakest). The voc. sing. masc. ends in यन् yan (but for the older language see below, 465 a).

The feminine is made by adding $\frac{1}{\xi}$ i to the weak masc.neut. stem.

464. As models of inflection, it will be sufficient to give a part of the forms of मोयस *créyas*, 'better', and of गरीयस gárīyas, 'heavier'. Thus:

N.	Singular : म्रियान् çréyān	म्रेयस् çréyas	गरीयान् gárīyān	गरीयस् gárīyas
A .	म्रेयांसम्	म्रेयम्	गरीयांमम्	गरीयस्
	çréyānsam	çréyas	gárīyānsam	gārīyas
I.	म्रे	यसा	गरीयस	Π
	çr	ly asā	gá r iyai	ā
		etc.	etc.	
v.	म्रेयन्	म्रेयम्	गरीयन्	गरीयम्
	çréyan	çréyas	gárīyan	gárīyas
N. A. V.	Dual : म्रेयांसी çréyāñsāu etc.	म्रेयसी <i>çréyas</i> i etc.	गरीयांसी gárīyānsāu etc.	मरीयसी gárīyasī etc.
N. V.	Plural : भ्रेयांमस् çréyāṅsas	घेयांसि çréyānsi	गरीयांसस् gárīyānsas	गरीयांसि gárigithi

V. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

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A .	म्रेयसम्	म्रेयांसि	गरीयमम्	गरीयांसि
	ç réyasas	çréyānsi	gárīyasas	gáriyānsi
I.	म्रेगोभिस्		गरीयोभिस्	
	çréyo	bhis	gárīyobhis	
	et			etc.
				-

The feminine stems of these adjectives are घेयसी *créyasī* and गरीयसी gárīyasī.

465. a. The Vedic voc. masc. (as in the two preceding divisions: **454 b, 462 a**) is in yas instead of yan: thus, ojiyas, jyayas (RV.: no examples elsewhere have been noted).

b. No example of a middle case occurs in RV. or AV.

c. In the later language are found a few apparent examples of strong cases made from the weaker stem-form: thus, kaniyasam, acc. masc., kaniyasāu du. They are perhaps rather to be viewed as transition-forms to an a-declension.

Comparison.

466. Derivative adjective stems having a comparative and superlative meaning — or often also (and more originally) a merely intensive value — are made either directly from roots (by primary derivation), or from other derivative or compound stems (by secondary derivation).

The subject of comparison belongs properly to the chapter of derivation; but it stands in such near relation to inflection that it is, in accordance with the usual custom in grammars, conveniently and properly enough treated briefly here.

467. The suffixes of primary derivation are $\xi d H$ *iyas* for the comparative and $\xi \vartheta$ *istha* for the superlative. The root before them is accented, and usually strengthened by gunating, if capable of it — or, in some cases, by nasalization or prolongation. They are much more frequently and freely used in the oldest language than later; in the classical Sanskrit, only a limited number of such comparatives and superlatives are accepted in use; and these attach themselves in meaning for the most part to other adjectives from the same root, which seem to be their corresponding

positives: but in part also they are artificially connected with other words, unrelated with them in derivation.

Thus, from γ keip, 'hurl', come keipiyas and keipigika, which belong in meaning to keiprá, 'quick': from γ rr, 'encompass', come ráriyas and rárigika, which belong to wrú, 'broad': while, for example. kániyas and kánigika are attached by the grammarians to yúran. 'young', or álpa, 'small'; and ráriyas and rárigika to rrádiká, 'old'.

468. From Veda and Brähmana together, rather more than a hundred instances of this primary formation in iness and isthe in many cases only one of the pair actually occurring, are to be quoted. About half of these in RV., the decided majority belong, in meaning as in form, to the bare root in its adjective value. as used especially at the end of compounds, but sometimes also independently : thus, from y tap, 'burn', comes tapisthe, 'excessively burning': from 1 yaj, 'offer', come yájiyas and yajistha, 'better and best 'or very well sacrificing': from J yudh, 'fight', comes yódkiyas, 'fighting better': - in a few instances. the simple root is also found used as corresponding positive: thus. ju. hasty. rapid, with jariyas and jaristha. In a little class of instances eight, the root has a preposition prefixed, which then takes the accent : thus, agamistha, especially coming hither': ricayigha, 'best clearing away': - in a couple of cases . ocramisthe. aparavapistha, astheyas, the negative particle is prefixed : — in a single word 'cambharistha', an element of another kind. The words of this formation often take an accusative object: thus. sabhas táriyān (RV., 'traversing rapidly the cloud'; rrtrám kánisthak RV., 'best slayer of Vritra'.

But even in the oldest language appears not infrequently the same attachment in meaning to a derivative adjective which as pointed out above is usual in the later speech. Besides the examples that occur also later. others are met with like rariathe, choicest rára. choice bárhistha, 'greatest' brhánt, 'great', osisthe. quickest' oram, 'quickly'. and so on. Probably by analogy with these, like formations are in a few cases made from the apparently radical syllables of words which have no otherwise traceable root in the language : thus, kradhiyas and kradhistha K. from krdhú, stháriyas and sthárighs from sthurd, cáciyas RV. from cácrant, ániyas AV.) and ánisths (TS.) from and so on. And yet again, in a few exceptional cases, the suffixes iyas and isthe are applied to stems which are themselves palpably derivative : thus, acisthe from aci (RV.: only case tikeniyas AV. from tikená, brákmiyas and brákmigha (TS.) trom bråhman. dhårmistha TA. from dhårman, dråfhighs. (TB:

instead of *dárhistha*' from *drdhå*, *råghiyas* (TS.) from *raghu*. These are beginnings, not followed up later, of the extension of the formation to unlimited use.

In náviyas or návyas and návistha, from náva, 'new', and in sányas from sana, 'old' (all RV.), we have also formations unconnected with verbal roots.

469. The stems in *istha* are inflected like ordinary adjectives in a, making their feminines in \bar{a} ; those in *iyas* have a peculiar declension, which has been described above (**468 ff.**).

470. Of peculiarities and irregularities of formation, the following may be noticed.

The suffix iyas has in a few instances the briefer form yas, generally as alternative with the other: thus, táviyas and távyas, náviyas and návyas, vásiyas and vásyas, pániyas and pányas; and so from rabh and sah; sányas occurs alone. From bhū come bhúyas and bhúyistha, beside which RV. has also bháviyas.

Of roots in \bar{a} , the final blends with the initial of the suffix to e: thus, sthéyas, dhésiha, yésiha; but such forms are in the Veda generally to be resolved, as dháistha, yáistha. The root jyā forms jyésiha, but jyáyas (like bháyas).

The two roots in i, pri and cri, form préyas and présiha and créyas and crésiha.

From the root of rja come, without strengthening, rjiyas and rjistha; but in the older language also, more regularly, rdjiyas and rdjistha.

471. The suffixes of secondary derivation are $\pi \xi$ tara and πH tama. They are of almost unrestricted application, being added to adjectives of every form, simple and compound, ending in vowels or in consonants — and this from the earliest period of the language until the latest. The accent of the primitive remains (with rare exceptions) unchanged; and that form of stem is generally taken which appears before an initial consonant of a case-ending (weak or middle form).

Examples (of older as well as later occurrence) are: from vowel-stems, priyátara, váhnitama, rathítara and rathítama (RV.), cárutara, potřtama; — from consonant-stems, çámtama, çáçvattama, tavástara and tavástama, tuvistama, vápustara, tapasvítara, bhágavattara, hiranyavāçīmattama; — from compounds, ratnadhátama, abhibhútara, sukřttara, pūrbhittama, bhūridávattara. çúcivratatama. strīkāmatama. But in the Veda the final n of a stem is regularly retained: thus. madintana and madintama, vyrantama; and of a perfect participle the weakest stem is taken: thus. vidurtare, middlastama. A feminine final $\bar{\imath}$ is shortened: thus, devitamā BV.. tejarinitamā K..

In the older language, the words of this formation are not much more frequent than those of the other: thus, in RV, the stems in *tara* and *tama* are to those in *iyas* and *istha* as three to two; in AV., only as six to five: but later the former win a great preponderance.

472. These comparatives and superlatives are inflected like ordinary adjectives in a, forming their feminine in \bar{a} .

473. That especially in the Veda, some stems which are nouns rather than adjectives form derivatives of comparison is natural enough. considering the uncertain nature of the divisionline between substantive and adjective value. Thus, we have mötitama, minima, markitama, and others.

The suffixes tara and tama also make forms of comparison from some of the pronominal roots, as ka, ya, i see below. **520**: and from certain of the prepositions. as ut: and the adverbial accusative 'older. neuter: later. feminine, of a comparative in tars from a preposition is used to make a corresponding comparative to the preposition itself below. 1111 c.

The Hindu grammarians even allow the suffixes of comparison in the adverbial accusative feminine, *tarian* and *tamām*, to be appended to conjugational forms: thus, *pacati*. 'he cooks', *pacatitarām*. 'he cooks better': but such are barbarous combinations, having no warrant in the earlier uses of the language.

The suffixes of secondary comparison are occasionally added to those of primary. forming double comparatives and superlatives: thus, gariyastara, grégikatama.

The use of tame as ordinal suffix is noted below 487; with this value, it is accented on the final. and makes its feminine in \tilde{i} : thus, *calatamá*. m. and n., *calatami*. f., 'hundredth'.

474. From a few words, mostly prepositions, degrees of comparison are made by the briefer suffixes ra and ma: thus, *ádhara* and *adhamá*, *ápara* and *apamá*, *ávara* and *aramá*, *ápara* and *apamá*, *ántara*, *ántara*, *ántama*, *paramá*, *madhyamá*, *caramá*. And ma is also used to make ordinals below. 487.

CHAPTER VI.

NUMERALS.

475. The simple cardinal numerals for the first ten numbers (which are the foundation of the whole class), with their derivatives, the tens, and with some of the higher members of the decimal series, are as follows:

	75		रत्त		WIT
1	ए क ८४-	10	द्श ४४००	100	থান
	éka		dáça		ça <i>t</i> á
2	ह	20	বিঁহানি	1000	मक्स्र
	d vá		vinçati		sahá s ra
3	রি	30	র্নিয়ন্	10,000	म्रयत
Ū	tri		trinçát	10,000	ayúta
			-		•
4	चतुर्	4 0	चतारिंशत्	100,000	लत
	catúr		catvā rinçát		lakşá
5	पञ्च	50	দস্রাহান	1,000,000	प्रयत
	páñca		pañcāçát		práyuta
	-		<u>ৰছি</u>	10,000,000	
6	षष्	60		10,000,000	
	şá ş		şaşți		kóți
7	सप्त	70	মন্ননি	10 ⁸	म्रबुंद्
	saptá		sapta ti		arbudá
8	শ্বত	<u>د</u> م	म्रशीति	10 ⁹	मकार्बुद्
0	astá	80	açīti	10	mahārbuda
			· -		r
9	નવ	90		10 ¹⁰	खव
	náva		nava ti		kharvá
10	द्र्श	100	গন	1011	નિલર્વ
	dáça		çatá		nikharva
	1		,		

The accent sapta and asta is that belonging to these words in all accentuated texts; according to the grammarians, they are sapta and asta in the later language. See below, 483.

The series of decimal numbers may be carried still further; but there are great differences among the different authorities with regard to their names; and there is more or less of discordance even from ayúta on.

Thus, in the TS., we find ayúta, niyúta, prayúta, árbuda, nyàrbuda, samudrá, mádhya, ánta, parārdhá; K. reverses the order of niyúta and prayúta, and inserts badva after nyarbuda (reading nyarbudha): these are probably the oldest recorded series.

In modern time, the only numbers in practical use above 'thousand' are laksa ('lac' or lakh'; and koii ('crore'); and an Indian sum is wont to be pointed thus: 123,45,67,890, to signify '123 crores, 45 lakhs, 67 thousands, eight hundred and ninety'.

As to the stem-forms partican etc., see below, **484.** As to the form *sats* instead of *sas*, see above, **146** end. The stem dva appears in composition and derivation also as $dv\bar{a}$ and dvi; catúr in composition is accented *cátur*. The older form of *asta* is *astā*: see below, **483.** Forms in *-cat* and *-cati* for the tens are occasionally interchanged.

The other numbers are expressed by the various composition and syntactical combination of those given above. Thus:

476. The odd numbers between the even tens are made by prefixing the (accented) unit to the ten to which its value is to be added: but with various irregularities. Thus:

eka in '11' becomes eka, but is elsewhere unchanged;

dva becomes everywhere $dv\bar{a}$; but in '42'--'72' and in '92' it is interchangeable with dvi, and in '82' dvi alone is used;

for tri is substituted its nom. pl. masc. tráyas; but tri itself is also allowed in (43'-47') and in (93'), and in (83') tri alone is used;

sas becomes so in '16', and makes the initial d of data lingual (199b); elsewhere its final undergoes the regular conversion (226b) to t or d or n; and in '96' the n of navati is assimilated to it (199b);

asta becomes (astā (483) in '18'---'38', and has either form in the succeeding combinations. Thus:

11 ékādaça	31 ékatrinçat	61 ékaşaşti	81 Eküçiti
12 dvĺdaça	32 dvátrinçat	62 dvásasti dvísasti	82 dvydçîti
13 trítyodaça	88 tráyastriñçat	stráyah sasti 18 trísasti	88 tryàçiti
14 cáturdaça	34 cátustrinçal	64 cátuhsasti	84 câturaçiti
15 páñcadaça	35 páñcatrinçat	65 páñcasasti	85 páñcāçīti
16 sódaça	30 sáttrinçat	66 sátsasti	89 sádaçīti
17 saptádaça	37 saptátrinçat	67 saptásasti	87 saptáçīti
15 așțădaça	38 așțátrinçat	68 aștășaști aștășașți	98 aņideīti
19 náradaça	39 návalrinçat	09 návasasti	80 návāçīti.
The numbers	'21'-'29' are made	like those for '31'-'3	9'; the numbers

The numbers 21 - 29 are made like those for 31 - 39; the numbers 41 - 49, 51 - 59; 71 - 79, and 91 - 99 are made like these for 61 - 69.

Whitney, Grammar.

The forms made with $dv\bar{a}$ and *trayas* are more usual than those with dvi and *tri*, which are hardly to be quoted from the older literature (V. and Br.). The forms made with *astā* (instead of *asta*) are alone found in the older literature (**483**), and are usual in the later.

477. The above are the normal expressions for the odd numbers. But equivalent substitutes for them are also variously made. Thus:

a. By use of the adjectives $\bar{u}na$, 'deficient', and adhika, 'redundant', in composition with lesser numbers which are to be subtracted or added, and either independently qualifying or (more usually) in composition with larger numbers which are to be increased or diminished by the others: thus, tryūnasasti, 'sixty deficient by three' (i. e. '57'); astādhikanavati, 'ninety increased by eight' (i. e. '98'); ekādhikam catam, 'a hundred increased by one' (i. e. '101'); pañconam catam, '100 less 5' (i. e. '95'). For the nines, especially, such substitutes as ekonavincati, '20 less 1', or '19', are not uncommon; and later the eka, '1', is left off, and $\bar{u}navincati$ etc. have the same value.

b. A case-form of ℓka , 'one', is connected by $n\dot{a}$, 'not', with a larger number from which one is to be deducted: thus, $\ell kay\bar{a} n\dot{a}$ trincât (ÇB. PB. KB.), 'not thirty by one' (i. e. '29'); $\ell kasmān n\dot{a} pañcāçát$ (in ordinal), '49' (TS.); $\ell kasyāi$ (abl. fem.: **366.**3) ná pañcāçát, '49' (TS.); most often, $\ell k\bar{a}n$ (i. e. $\ell k\bar{a}t$, irregular abl. for $\ell kasmāt$) ná vincatí, '19'; $\ell k\bar{a}n$ nd catám, '99'. This last form is admitted also in the later language: the others are found in the Brāhmanas.

c. Instances of multiplication by a prefixed number are occasionally met with: thus, trisaptá, 'thrice seven'; trinavá, 'thrice nine'; tridaçá, 'thrice ten'.

d. Of course, the numbers to be added together may be expressed by independent words, with connecting 'and': thus, náva ca navatí; ca, or náva navatír ca, 'ninety and nine'; dvāú ca vinçatí; ca, 'two and twenty'. But the connective is also (at least, in the older language) not seldom omitted: thus, navatír náva, '99'; trinçátam trín, '33'; açitír astāú, '88'.

478. The same methods are also variously used for forming the odd numbers above 100. Thus:

a. The added number is prefixed to the other, and takes the accent: for example, *ekaçatam*, '101'; aştáçatam, '108'; trinçáchatam, '130'; aşt \bar{u} vinçatiçatam, '148'; cátuhsahasram (RV.: unless the accent is wrong), '1004'.

b. Or, the number to be added is compounded with adhika, 'redundant', and the compound is either made to qualify the other number or is further compounded with it: thus, pañcādhikam çatam or pañcādhikaçatam, '105'.

Of course, *ūna*, 'deficient' (as also other words equivalent to *ūna* or *adhika*), may be used in the same way: thus, *pañconam* catam, '95'.

c. Syntactical combinations are made at convenience: for example, daça gatâm ca, '110'; gatâm ékam ca, '101'.

479. Another usual method (beginning in the Brāhmanas) of forming the odd numbers above 100 is to qualify the larger

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number by an adjective derived from the smaller, and identical with the briefer ordinal (below, **487**): thus, dvādaçám çatám, '112' (lit'ly, 'a hundred of a 12-sort, or characterised by 12'); catuçcatvārmçám çatám, '124'; sațsastám çatám, '166'.

480. To multiply one number by another, among the higher or the lower denominations, the simplest and least ambiguous method is to make of the multiplied number a dual or plural, qualified by the other as any ordinary noun would be; and this method is a common one in all ages of the language. For example: páñca pañcāçátas, five fifties ('250'); náva navatáyas, 'nine nineties' ('810'); açītibhis tisŕbhis, 'with three eighties' ('240'); páñca çatāni, 'five hundreds'; trini sahásrāni, 'three thousands'; sastim sahásrāni, '60,000'; daça ca sahasrāny astāu ca çatāni, '10,800': and, combined with addition, trini çatāni tráyastrinçatam ca, '333'; sahasre dve pañconam çatam eva ca, '2095'.

By a peculiar and wholly illogical construction, such a combination as trini sasticatani, which ought to signify '480' $(3 \times 100 + 60)$, is frequently used in the Brähmanas to mean '360' $(3 \times 100 + 60)$; so also dvé catustrincé caté, '234' (not '268'); and other like cases.

481. But the two factors, multiplier and multiplied, are also, and in later usage more generally, combined into a compound (accented on the final); and this is then treated as an adjective, qualifying the numbered noun; or else its neuter or feminine (in \tilde{i}) singular is used substantively: thus, daçaçatās, '1000'; saţçatāih padātibhih (MBh.), 'with 600 foot-soldiers'; tráyastrinçat triçatāh saṭsahasrāh (AV.), '6333'; dviçatám or dviçati, '200'; astādaçaçatā, '1800'.

In the usual absence of accentuation, there arises sometimes a question as to how a compound number shall be understood: whether asiacatam, for example, is asiácatam, '108', or asiacatám, '800', and the like.

482. Inflection. The inflection of the cardinal numerals is in many respects irregular. Gender is distinguished only by the first four.

8. $Ek\bar{a}$, '1', is declined after the manner of a pronominal adjective (like *sárva*, below, **524**); its plural is used in the sense of 'some, certain ones'. Its dual does not occur.

Occasional forms of the ordinary declension are met with: thus, δke (loc. sing.), $\delta k\bar{a}t$.

In the late literature, *eka* is used in the sense of 'a certain', or even sometimes almost of 'a', as an indefinite article. Thus, *eko vyāghrah* (H.), 'a certain tiger'; *ekasmin dine*, 'on a certain day'; *haste daņdam ekam ādāya* (H.), 'taking a stick in his hand³

11*

b. Dva, '2', is dual only, and is entirely regular: thus, N.A.V. dvāu (V. dva), m., dvé, f. n.; I.D.Ab. drabhyām; G.L. dváyos.

c. Tri, '3', is in masc. and neut. nearly regular, like an ordinary stem in *i*; but their genitive is as if from *trayá* (only in the later language: the regular *trinám* occurs once in RV.). For the feminine it has the peculiar stem *tisr*, which is inflected in general like an *r*-stem; but the nom. and accus. are alike, and show no strengthening of the *r*; and the *r* is not prolonged in the gen. (excepting in the Veda). Thus:

	m.	n.	f.
N.	t rá yas	trĺņi	tisrás
A .	trín	trĺņi	tieráe
I .	tribhís		ti si bhis
D. Ab.	tribhyðs		ti sŕ bhyas
G.	trayāņām		tionnam
L.	triș	â	tiof ou.

The Veda has the abbreviated neut. nom. and accus. trf. The accentuation tisybh(s, tisybhyds, tisymm, and tisysu is said to be also allowed in the later language.

The stem tisy occurs in composition in tisydhaned (Br.', 'a bow along with three arrows'.

d. Cattir, '4', has catvar the more original form in the strong cases; in the fem. it substitutes the stem catasr, apparently akin with air, and inflected like it but with anomalous change of accent, like that in the higher numbers: see below, **483**. Thus:

	D .	n.	t.
N.	catuirus	catvári	nitamas'
A.	cutitras	cateári	cita sr as
1.	catúrbhis		catasýbhis
D. Ab.	catúrókyas		estasibhyas
G.	cuturedim		catasynäm
L.	catúr	in .	catasijeu.

The use of n before $\bar{u}m$ of the gen. masc. and neut. after a final consonant of the stem is , as in sus: below, 483: a striking irregularity. The more regular gen. fem. cutus, main also sometimes occurs. In the later language, the accentuation of the final syllable instead of the penult is allowed in inst., dat.-abl., and loc.

483. The numbers from 5 to 19 have no distinction of gender, nor any generic character. They are inflected, somewhat irregularly, as plurals, save in the nom.-acc., where they have no proper plural form, but show the bare stem instead. Of gais as of catter, with is the gen. ending, with mutual assimilation 198 b of stem-final and initial of the termination. Again as

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INFLECTION.

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acconted in the older language) has an alternative fuller form, asiá, which is almost exclusively used in the older literature (V. and Br.), both in inflection and in composition (but some compounds with asia are found as early as the AV.); its nom.acc. is asiá (usual later: found in RV. once, and in AV.), or asiá (RV.), or asiai (most usual in RV.; also in AV., Br., and later).

The accent is in many respects peculiar. In all the accented texts, the stress of voice lies on the penult before the endings bhis, bhyas, and su, from the stems in a, whatever be the accent of the stem: thus, pañcábhis from páñca, navábhyas from náva, dacásu from dáca, navadaçábhis from návadaça, ekādaçábhyas from ékādaça, dvādaçásu from dvádaça; according to the grammarians, either the penult or the final is accented in these forms in the later language. In the gen. pl., the accent is on the ending (as in that of i, u, and r-stems). The cases of sas, and those made from the stem-form astā, have the accent throughout upon the ending.

Examples of the inflection of these words are as follows:

N. A.	páñca	sát	așțāú	aștă
I.	pañcábhis	sadbhís	așțābhîs	astábhis
D. Ab.	pañcábhyas	sadbhyás	așțābhyás	astábhyas
G.	pañcānắm	şaņņá m	așță	i n ám
L.	pañcásu	şatsú	așțūsú	așțâsu.

Saptá (in the later language sápta, as ásta for astá) and náva and dáça, with the compounds of dáça ('11'--'19'), are declined like páñca, and with the same shift of accent (or with alternative shift to the endings, as pointed out above).

484. The Hindu grammarians give to the stems for '5' and '7'--'19' a final n: thus, pañcan, saptan. astan, navan, daçan, and ekādaçan etc. This, however, has nothing to do with the demonstrably original final nasal of '7', '9', and '10' (compare septem, novem, decem; seven, nine, ten); it is only owing to the fact that, starting from such a stem-form, their inflection is made to assume a more regular aspect, the nom.-acc. having the form of a neut. sing. in an, and the instr., dat.-abl., and loc. that of a neut. or masc. pl. in an: compare náma, námabhis, námabhyas, námasu — the gen. alone being like that, rather, of a a-stem: compare daçānám with findrāņām and námnām or ātmánām. No trace whatever of a final n is found anywhere in the language, in inflection or derivation or composition, from any of these words.

485. The tens, vinçati and trinçát etc., with their compounds, are declined regularly, as feminine stems of the same endings, and in all numbers.

Çatá and *sahásra* are declined regularly, as neuter (or, rarely, in the later language, as masculine) stems of the same final, in all numbers.

The like is true of the higher numbers — which have, indeed, no proper numeral character, but are ordinary nouns.

486. Construction. As regards their construction with the nouns enumerated by them:

a. The words for '1' to '19' are used adjectively, agreeing in case, and, if they distinguish gender, in gender also, with the nouns: thus, daçábhir $v\bar{v}r\bar{a}ih$, 'with ten heroes'; yé devá divy ékādaça sthá (AV.), 'what eleven gods of you are in heaven'; pañcásu jáneşu, 'among the five tribes'; catasibhir gīrbhih, 'with four songs'.

b. The numerals above '19' are construed usually as nouns, either taking the numbered noun as a dependent genitive, or standing in the singular in apposition with it: thus, *catam dāsiņ* or *catam dāsinām*, 'a hundred slaves' or 'a hundred of slaves'; *vincatyā hāribhis*, 'with twenty bays'; *sastyām carātsu*, 'in 60 autumns'; *caténa pācāiņ*, 'with a hundred fetters'; *catām sahāsram ayútam nyàrbudam jaghāna cakró dásyūnām* (AV.), 'the mighty [Indra] slew a hundred, a thousand, a myriad, a hundred million, of demons'.

Occasionally they are put in the plural, as if used more adjectively: thus, pañcāçadbhir vāņāiķ, 'with fifty arrows'.

c. In the older language, the numerals for '5' and upward are sometimes used in the nom.-acc. form or as if indeclinably) with other cases also: thus. páñca kratisu, 'among the five races'; saptá reinām, 'of seven bards'; sahásram reibhih, 'with a thousand bards'; catám pūrbhih. 'with a hundred strongholds'.

487. Ordinals. Of the classes of derivative words coming from the original or cardinal numerals, the ordinals are by far the most important; and the mode of their formation may best be explained here.

Some of the first ordinals are irregularly made: thus,

ika, '1', forms no ordinal; instead is used *prathamá* (i. e. *pra-tama*, 'foremost'): *ādi* is rare in the Brāhmanas, and *ādya* even in the Sūtras;

from drá, '2', and tri. '3', come dritiya and trtiya secondarily, through drita and abbreviated trita :

catúr, '4', sás, '6', and saptá, '7', take the ending tha: thus, caturthá, sasthá, saptátha: but for 'fourth' are used also turiya and túrya, and saptátha belongs to the older language only: pañcatha, for 'fifth'. is excessively rare:

the numerals for 5 and 7 usually, and for 5, 9, 10, add ma, forming pañcamá, saptamá, astamá, navamá, daçamá;

for '11th' to '19th', the forms are $ek\bar{a}dacd$, $dv\bar{a}dacd$, and so on 'the same with the cardinals, except change of accent);

for the tens and intervening odd numbers from '20' onward, the ordinal has a double form --- one made by adding the full (superlative) ending tamá to the cardinal : thus, vinçatitamá, trinçattamá, açītitamá, etc.; the other, shorter, in a, with abbreviation of the cardinal: thus, vincá, '20th'; trincá, '30th'; catrārinçá, '40th'; pañcāçá, '50th'; sastá, '60th'; saptatá, '70th'; açītá, '80th': navatá, '90th'; and so likewise ekavinçá, '21st', catustrinçá, '34th'; astācatvārinçá, '48th'; drāpañcācá. '52d'; ekasastá, '61st'; and ekānnavinçá and ūnavinçá and ekonavinçá, '19th': - and so on. Of these two forms, the latter and briefer is by far the more common, the other being not quotable from the Veda, and extremely rarely from the Brāhmanas. From '50th' on, the briefer form is allowed by the grammarians only to the odd numbers, made up of tens and units; but it is sometimes met with, even in the later language, from the simple ten.

Of the higher numbers, *çatá* and *sahásra* form *çatatamá* and *sahasratamá*; but their compounds have also the simpler form: thus, *ekaçatá*, '101st'.

Of the ordinals, prathamá (and $\bar{a}dya$), dviáya, tráya, and turiya (with túrya) form their feminine in \bar{a} ; all the rest make it in \bar{i} .

488. The ordinals, as in other languages, have other than ordinal offices to fill; and in Sanskrit especially they are general adjectives to the cardinals, with a considerable variety of meanings, as fractionals, as signifying 'composed of so many parts' or 'so-many-fold', or 'containing so many', or (as was seen above, **479**) 'having so many added'.

In a fractional sense, the grammarians direct that their accent be shifted to the first syllable: thus, dvfliya, 'half'; trifiya, 'third part'; cáturtha, 'quarter', and so on. But in accented texts only trifiya, 'third', and túriya, 'quarter', are found so treated; for 'half' occurs only ardhá; and caturthá, pañcamá, and so on, are accented as in their ordinal use.

489. Other numeral derivatives — thus,

multiplicative adverbs, as *dvis*, *tris*, *catús*, 'twice', thrice', 'four times';

adverbs with the suffixes $dh\bar{a}$ and cas: for example, *ekadhå*, 'in one way', *catadhå*, 'in a hundred ways'; *ekaças*, 'one by one', *cataçás*, 'by hundreds';

collectives, as dvítaya or drayá, 'a pair', dáçataya or daçát, 'a decade' —

belong rather to the dictionary, or to the chapter of derivation.

CHAPTER VII.

PRONOUNS.

490. The pronouns differ from the great mass of nouns and adjectives chiefly in that they come by derivation from another and a very limited set of roots, the so-called 'pronominal' or 'demonstrative' roots. But they have also many and marked peculiarities of inflection — some of which, however, find analogies also in a few adjectives; and such adjectives will accordingly be described at the end of this chapter.

Personal Pronouns.

491. The pronouns of the first and second persons are the most irregular and peculiar of all, being made up of fragments coming from various roots and combinations of roots. They have no distinction of gender.

Their inflection in the later language is as follows:

Singular:

•		
	1st pers.	2d pers.
N.	म्रक्म् ahám	लम्
	ahám	tvám
A .	माम् मा	वाम्, वा
	mám, mā	ताम्, ता tvām, tvā
I.	मया	वया
	máyā	tváyā
D.	मन्धम्, मे	<u>ਰ</u> ਮ੍ਹੇਸ਼, ਰੇ
	मन्धम्, मे máhyam, me	तुभ्यम्, ते túbhyam, te
Ab.	मत्	वत्
	मत् mát	त्वत् tvát

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G. L.	मम, मे máma, me मघि	तव, ते ^{৻áva,} ৻e लयि
	nia máyi	alu tváyi
Dual:		
N. A. V.	चावाम् āvám	युवाम् yucám
I. D. Ab.	म्रावाभ्याम् āvábhyām	युवाभ्याम् yuvábhyām
G. L .	म्रावयोस् ^{āváyos}	युवयोस् yuráyas
andA.D.	9. नी nāu	वाम् ^{vām}
Plural :		
N.	वयम्	यूयम्
	vayám	yūyám
А.	ग्रस्मान्, नस्	युष्मान्, वस्
	म्रस्मान्, नस् asmán, nas	युष्मान्, वस् yuşmán, vas
I.	भ्रस्माभिम् asmábhis	युष्माभिस् yuşmábhis
D.	म्नस्मभ्यम्, नस् asmábhyam, nas	युष्मभ्यम्, वस् yuşmábhyam, vas
Ab.	श्वस्मत् asmát	युष्मत् yuşmát
G.	म्रस्माकम्, नस् asmákam, nas	युष्माकम्. वस् yuşmákam, vas
L.	म्रस्मामु asmäsu	युष्मासु yuşmásu

The briefer second forms for accus., dat., and gen., in all numbers, are accentless; and hence they are not allowed to stand at the beginning of a sentence, or elsewhere where any emphasis is laid.

The ablative mat is accentless in one or two AV. passages (x1.4.26; x11.3.46).

492. Forms of the older language. All the forms

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given above are found also in the older language; which, however, has also others that afterward disappear from use.

Thus, the Veda (RV.) has a few times the instr. sing. $tv\dot{a}$ (like manisation for manisation of the loc. sing. $tv\dot{e}$, the dat. pl. (less often loc.) as met, and the loc. pl. yus met: the final e of these forms is uncombinable (or pragraya: 138b). The datives in bhyam are in RV. not seldom to be read as if in bhya, with loss of the final nasal; asmatican and yusmatican suffer. the same loss only in a rare instance or two. The usual resolutions of semivowel to vowel are made, and are especially frequent in the forms of the second person (tuám for tvám, etc.).

But the duals, above all, wear a very different aspect earlier. In Veda and Brähmana, the nominatives are $\bar{a}r\dot{a}m$ and $yur\dot{a}m$, and only the accusatives $\bar{a}r\dot{a}m$ and $yur\dot{a}m$ (but in RV. the dual forms of 1st pers. chance not to occur, unless in $r\dot{a}m$?], once, for $\bar{a}r\dot{a}m$; the instr. in RV. is either $yur\dot{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ (not elsewhere found) or $yur\dot{a}bhy\bar{a}m$; an abl. $yur\dot{a}t$ appears once in RV., and $\bar{a}r\dot{a}t$ twice in TS.; the gen.-loc. is in RV. (only) $yur\dot{a}s$ instead of $yur\dot{a}yos$. Thus we have here a distinction (elsewhere unknown) of five different dual cases by endings, in part accordant with those of the other two numbers.

493. Peculiar endings. The ending am, appearing in the nom. sing. and pl. and Vedic du.) of these pronouns, will be found often, though only in sing., among the other pronouns. The bhyam or hyam of dat. sing. and pl. is met with only here; its relationship with the bhyam, bhyas, bhis of the ordinary declension is palpable. The t or d of the abl., though here preceded by a short vowel, is doubtless the same with that of the a-declension of nouns and adjectives. That the nom., dat., and abl. endings should be the same in sing. and pl. and in part in the earlier du. also, only the stem to which they are added being different, is unparalleled elsewhere in the language. The element smu appearing in the plural forms will be found frequent in the inflection of the singular in other pronominal words: in fact, the compound stem asma which underlies the plural of aham seems to be the same that furnishes part of the singular forms of ayam 501, and its value of 'we' to be a specialisation of the meaning 'these persons'. The genitives singular, mima and tiva, have no analogies elsewhere; the derivation from them of the adjectives mamaka and taraka below. 516 suggests the possibility of their being themselves stereotyped stems. The gen. pl., asmiltum and yusmiltum, are certainly of this character: namely, neuter sing, case-forms of the adjective stems asmaka and yusmaka, other cases of which are found in the Veda.

494. Stem-forms. To the Hindu grammarians, the stems of the personal pronouns are *mad* and *asmad*, and *trad* and *yuşmad*, because these are forms used to a certain extent, and allowed to be indefinitely used, in derivation and composition like *tad*, *kad*, etc.: see below, under the other pronouns. Words are thus formed from them even in the older language

— namely, mátkrta, mátsakhi, asmátsakhi, tvádyoni, mattás (AV.), tvátpitr (TS.), yuváddevatya (ÇB.); but much more numerous are those that show the proper stem in a, or with the a lengthened to \bar{a} : thus, mávant; asmatrá, asmadrúh, etc.; tvádatta, tvānid, tvávasu, tváhata, etc.; yuşmádatta, yuşméşita, etc.; yuvádhita, yuvádatta, yuvánīta, etc. And the later language also has a few words made in the same way, as $m\bar{a}drc$.

The Vedas have certain more irregular combinations, with complete forms: thus, tvárhkāma, māmpaçyá, mamasatyá, asméhiti, ahampūrvá, ahamuttará, aharhyú, aharhsana.

From the stems of the grammarians come also the derivative adjectives madiya, tradiya, asmadiya, yuşmadiya, having a possessive value: see below, 516.

For sva and svayám, see below, 518.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

495. The simplest demonstrative, \overline{n} ta, which answers also the purpose of a personal pronoun of the third person, may be taken as model of a mode of declension usual in so many pronouns and pronominal adjectives that it is fairly to be called the general pronominal declension.

But this root has also the special irregularity that in the nom. sing. masc. and fem. it has sás (for whose peculiar euphonic treatment see 176a) and sá, instead of tás and tá (compare Gr. $\dot{\delta}$, $\dot{\eta}$, to, and Goth. sa, so, thata). Thus:

Singular:

	m.	n.	f.
N.	सम्	নন্	सा
	सम् 848	নন্ ##	કર્વ
A.	तम् tám	নন্ ধে	ताम् tám
	tám	tát È	tám
I.	ลิ	ন	तया
	te	ina	táyā
D.	ส	स्मै	तस्यै
	ta	ismāi	tásyāi
Ab.	ਰ	ास्मात् Ismāt	तस्यास् tåsyās
	te	lsmāt	tāsyās 🗋

VII. PRONOUNS.

G . L.	तस्य क्षेत्रब क्षेत्व्यं	Į ,	मस्याम् ४४१९व्य तस्याम् ४४४९व्वक
Dual :			<u>.</u> .
N. A. V.		ते	ਸੇ
	tāú	té	té
I. D. Ab.	ताभ्या <i>1664</i> 9	म्	নান্যান্
	tábhyi	im	tábhyām
G . L.	तयोन्		तयोन्
	táyos	•	táyos 🔪
Plural:			
N.	ते	ন্যদি	নান্
	té	tāni	নান্ ঋ
۸.	নান্	নানি	নান্
	tán Ì	tâni	নান্ ৻৳
I.	तैन्		নানিন্ ৫১১৬
	tāis		เล่งหน่
D. Ab.	नेन्यन	ſ	तान्यन
	नेन्यन् tebhya	н П	না-যন্ টেট্/মুগ্র
G.	तेपान्		तामान्
	të ş ām		tāsām.
L.	तेष्		নান
	tėşu		tā.su

The Vedas show no other irregularities of inflection than those which belong to all stems in a and \bar{a} : namely. $\delta m\bar{a}$ sometimes: usually af for $\delta \bar{m}$, du.: often af for am, pl. neut.: usually $\delta \bar{m}$ is for $\delta \bar{m}$, instr. pl.: and the ordinary resolutions. The RV, has one more case-form from the root so, namely admin occurring nearly half as often as alornen.

496. The peculiarities of the general pronominal declension. it will be noticed, are these:

In the singular, the use of t properly d as ending it nom-acc, neut.: the combination with the root if another element sum in mass, and neut. dat. abl., and he., and of sy in fem. dat., abl.-gen., and he.: and the mass, and neut, he. ending in, which is restricted to this deciention except in the anomalous yikhymen, RV., once.

The dual is precisely that of nonn-stems in a and F

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In the plural, the irregularities are limited to $t\dot{\epsilon}$ for $t\dot{ds}$ in nom. masc., and the insertion of s instead of n before \bar{am} of the gen., the stem-final being treated before it in the same manner as before su of the loc.

497. The stem of this pronoun is by the grammarians given as *tad*; and from that form come, in fact, the derivative adjective *tadiya*, with *tattrá*, *tadvat*, *tanmaya*; and numerous compounds, such as *tacchila*, *tajjña*, *tatkara*, *tadvanatara*, *tammätra*, etc. These compounds are not rare even in the Veda: so *tádanna*, *tadvid*, *tadvaçá*, etc. But derivatives from the true root *ta* are also many: especially adverbs, as *tátra*, *tátra*, *táthā*, *tadá*; the adjectives *távant* and *táti*; and the compound *tādrc* etc.

498. Though the demonstrative root to is prevailingly of the third person, it is also freely used, both in the earlier language and in the later, as qualifying the pronouns of the first and second person, giving emphasis to them: thus, sò 'hàm, 'this I', or 'I here'; sá tvám, 'thou there'; te vayam, 'we here'; and so on.

499. Two other demonstrative stems appear to contain ta as an element; and both, like the simple ta, substitute sa in the nom. sing. masc. and fem.

a. The one, $ty\dot{a}$, is tolerably common (although only a third of its possible forms occur) in RV., but rare in AV., and almost unknown later: its nom. sing., in the three genders, is $sy\dot{a}s$, $sy\dot{a}$, $ty\dot{a}t$, and it makes the accusatives $ty\dot{a}m$, $ty\dot{a}m$, $ty\dot{a}t$, and goes on through the remaining cases in the same manner as ta. It has in RV. the instr. fem. $ty\dot{a}$ (for $tydy\bar{a}$).

b. The other is the usual demonstrative of nearer position, 'this here', and is in frequent use through all periods of the language. It prefixes e to the simple root, forming the nominatives escis, esci, etát — and so on through the whole inflection.

The stem tya has neither compounds nor derivatives. But from eta are formed both, in the same manner as from the simple ta, only much less numerous: thus, etadda (CB.), etadartha, etc., from the so-called stem etat; and $et\bar{a}drc$ and etavantfrom eta.

500. There is a defective pronominal stem, *ena*, which is accentless, and hence used only in situations where no emphasis falls upon it. It does not occur elsewhere than in the accusative of all numbers, the instr. sing., and the gen.-loc. dual: thus,

	m.	n.		f.
Sing. A.	enam	enat		enām
1.	ene	na	•	enayā

Du.	A .	enāu	ene	ene
	G. L	. ena	yos	enayos
P1 .	A.	enān	enāni	enās

The RV, has enos instead of encycs, and in one or two instances accents a form: thus, endm, ends(?).

This stem forms neither derivatives nor compounds.

501. Two other demonstrative declensions are so irregularly made up that they have to be given in full. The one, $\overline{\mathfrak{AUH}}$ ayám etc., is used as a more indefinite demonstrative, 'this' or 'that'; the other, $\overline{\mathfrak{AH}}$ asāú etc., signifies especially the remoter relation, 'yon' or 'yonder'.

They are as follows:

Singular:

N.	^{™. [™].}	r.	^{™.}	ा.
	म्रयम् इट्रम्	इयम्	श्र सी ग्रट्स्	म्रसी
A .	ayám idám	iyám	asāú adás	asāú
	इमम् इट्रम्	इमाम्	म्रमुम् म्रदस्	म्रमम
	imám idám	imám	amúm adás	amam
1.	म्रनेन	म्रनया	म्रमुना	म्रमुया
	anéna	anáyā	amúnā	amúyā
D.	म्रास्मे asmāi	मान्यप्र म्रस्ये asyāi	म्रमुष्मे amúşmāi	यागवपुरः स्रमुष्ये amúşyāi
Ab.	म्रस्मात्	म्रस्यास्	श्रमुष्मात्	म्रमुष्यास्
	asmát	asyás	amúşmāt	amúsyās
G.	छस्य	म्नस्यास्	म्रमुष्य	म्रमुष्यास्
	asyá	asyás	amúşya	amúsyās
L.	म्रस्मिन्	म्रस्याम्	म्रमुष्टिमन्	म्रमुष्याम्
	asmin	asyám	amúşmin	amúsyām
	Dual:			
N. A.	इमी इमे imāú imé	रमे imé	म्रमू amti	
I.D.At	. म्राभ्याम् ābhyám		म् ama	याम् bhyām
G. L.	म्रनयोम् anáyos		म्रमुर amú	ग्रीम् yos

	Plural :			
N.	इमे इमानि	इमास्	म्रमी म्रमूनि ami amani	म्रमूस्
	imé imáni	imās	ami amúni	amūs
A .	इमान् इमानि	इमाम्	म्रमून् ममूनि	म्रमूस्
	imán imáni	imás	amun amuni	amás
I.	रुभिस्	म्राभिस्	ग् यमीभिस्	म्रमूभिस्
	ebhis	ābhis	amibhis `	amūbhis
D. Ab.	ए भ्यस्	म्राभ्यस्	म्रमीभ्यस्	ग्रमू भ्यस्
	ebhyás	ābhyás	amibhyas	amubhyas
G.	एषाम्	ग्रासाम्	म्रमीषाम्	म्रम्षाम्
	eşām	āsām 🗋	amtsām	amuşām
L.	रृष्	म्रास्	म्रमीष्	म्रमष
	रुषु eşú	म्रामु ^{āsú}	amişu	amūsu

The same forms are used in the older language, without variation, except that imá occurs for imāu and imáni, and amú for amúni; amuyā when used adverbially is accented on the final, amuyá; $as\bar{a}u$ (with accent, of course, on the first, $\dot{a}s\bar{a}u$) is used also as vocative.

502. The former of these two pronouns, ayám etc., plainly shows itself to be pieced together from a number of defective stems. The majority of forms come from the root a, with which, as in the ordinary pronominal declension, sma (f. sy) is combined in the singular. All these forms from a have the peculiarity that in their substantive use they are either accented, as in the paradigm, or accentless (like ena and the second forms from *ahám* and *tvám*). The remaining forms are always accented. From aná come, with entire regularity, anéna, anáyū, anáyos. The strong cases in dual and plural, and in part in singular, come not less regularly from a stem *imá*. And ayám, *igám*, *idám* are evidently to be referred to a simple root *i* (*idám* being apparently a double form: *id*, like *tad* etc., with ending *am*).

The Veda has from the root a also the instrumentals end and ayd (used in general adverbially), and the gen. loc. du. ayds; from *ima*, *imásya* occurs once in RV. The RV. has in a small number of instances the irregular accentuation $dsm\bar{a}i$, dsya, dbhis.

In analogy with the other pronouns, idám is by the grammarians regarded as representative stem of this pronominal declension; and it is actually found so treated in a very small number of compounds (*idammáya* and *idámrūpa* are of Brāhmana age. As regards the actual stems, ana furnishes nothing further; from *ima* comes only the adverb *imáthā* (RV., once); but a and *i* furnish a number of derivatives, mostly adverbial: thus, for example, *átas*, *átra*, *átha*; *itás*, *id* (Vedic particle), *idā*, *ihá*, *itara*, *im* (Vedic particle), *īdi*?, perhaps *evá* and *evám*, and others.

503. The other pronoun, $as\bar{a}\hat{u}$ etc., has $am\hat{u}$ for its leading stem, which in the singular takes in combination, like the *a*-stems, the element sma (f. sy), and which shifts to $am\bar{s}$ in part of the masc. and neut. plural. In part, too, like an adjective *u*-stem, it lengthens its final in the feminine. The gen. sing. $am\hat{u}sya$ is the only example in the language of the ending sya added to any other than an *a*-stem. The nom. pl. $am\bar{s}$ is unique in form; its \bar{s} is (like that of a dual) pragrhya, or exempt from combination with a following vowel (138 b). As $\bar{a}\hat{u}$ and $ad\hat{a}s$ are also without analogies as regards their endings.

The grammarians, as usual, treat adás as representative stem of the declension, and it is found in this character in an extremely small number of words, as adomūla; adomáya is of Brāhmana age. The ÇB. has also asāunáman. But most of the derivatives, as of the cases, come from amu: thus, amútas, amútra, amúthā, amúrhi, amuvát, amuka.

In the older language occurs the root tva (accentless), meaning 'one, many a one'; it is oftenest found repeated, as 'one' and 'another'. It follows the ordinary pronominal declension.

Fragments of another demonstrative root or two are met with: thus, *dimas*, 'he', occurs in a formula in AV. and in Brāhmaņas etc.; *awos* as gen.-loc. dual is found in RV.; the particle u points to a root u.

Interrogative Pronoun.

504. The characteristic part of the interrogative pronominal root is $\overline{\eta} k_j$; it has the three forms $\overline{\eta} ka$, $\overline{\eta} ki$, $\overline{\eta} ku_j$; but the whole declensional inflection is from $\overline{\eta} ka$, excepting the nom.-acc. sing. neut., which is from $\overline{\eta} ki$, and has the anomalous form $\overline{\eta} \mu kim$ (not elsewhere known in the language from a neuter *i*-stem). The nom. and accus. sing., then, are as follows:

	m.	n.	f.
N.	कस्	किम्	का
	kás	kim	ká
A .	कम्	किम्	काम्
	kám	kim	kắm

and the rest of the declension is precisely like that of π ta (above, 495).

The Veda has its usual variations, $k\dot{a}$ and $k\dot{b}his$ for $k\dot{a}ni$ and $k\ddot{u}\dot{t}s$. It also has, along with kfm, the pronominally regular neuter $k\dot{a}d$; and $k\dot{a}m$

(or kam) is a frequent particle. The masc. form kis, corresponding to kim, occurs as a stereotyped case in the combinations nákis and mákis.

505. The grammarians treat kim as representative stem of the interrogative pronoun; and it is in fact so used in a not large number of words, of which a few — kimmáya, kimkard, kimkāmyá, kimdevata, and the peculiar kimyú — go back even to the Veda and Brāhmana. In closer analogy with the other pronouns, the form kad, a couple of times in the Veda (katpayd, kádartha), and not infrequently later, is found as first member of compounds. Then, from the real roots ka, ki, ku are made many derivatives; and from ki and ku, especially the latter, many compounds : thus, káti, kathá, kathám, kadá, katard, katamá, kárhi; kiyant, kīdrç; kútas, kútra, kúha, kvà, kucard, kukarman, kumantrin, etc.

506. Various forms of this pronoun, as kad, kim, and ku (and, rarely, ko), at the beginning of compounds, have passed from an interrogative meaning, through an exclamatory, to the value of prefixes signifying an unusual quality — either something admirable, or, oftener, something contemptible. This use begins in the Veda, but becomes much more common in later time.

507. The interrogative pronoun, as in other languages, turns readily in its independent use also to an exclamatory meaning. Moreover, it is by various added particles converted to an indefinite meaning: thus, by ca, cand, cit, dpi, $v\bar{a}$, either alone or with the relative ya (below, 511) prefixed: thus, kdq; cand, 'any one'; nd kd 'pi, 'not any one'; ydni kdni cit, 'whatsoever'. Occasionally, the interrogative by itself acquires a similar value.

Relative Pronoun.

508. The root of the relative pronoun is \overline{a} ya, which from the earliest period of the language has lost all trace of the demonstrative meaning originally (doubtless) belonging to it, and is used as relative only.

509. It is inflected with entire regularity according to the usual pronominal declension: thus,

	Singular.			Dual.				Plural.	
	m.	n.	f.	m.	n.	f.	m.	n.	f.
N.	यम्	यत्	या)			ये	যানি	यास्
	yás	yát	уá	यी	ये	ये	yé	yāni	yás
A.	यम्	यत्	याम्	(yāú	yé	yé	यान्	যানি	यास्
	yám	yát	yắm	J			yắn	yáni	yās
	Whitney, Gr	ammar.						12	

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I.	যন	यया		ग्रै स्	याभिस्
	yéna	yáyā	याभ्याम्	yāls	yábhis`
D.	यस्मै _{Vásmāi}	यस्यै yásyāi	yábhyām	येभ्यम् yébhyas	याभ्यम् yábhyas
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

The Veda shows its usual variations of these forms: $y\dot{a}$ for $y\bar{a}\dot{u}$ and for $y\dot{a}n\dot{n}$, and $y\dot{c}bhis$ for $y\bar{a}\dot{s}$; $y\dot{o}s$ for $y\dot{a}yos$ also occurs once; $y\dot{e}n\ddot{a}$, with prolonged final, is in RV. twice as common as $y\dot{e}na$. Resolutions occur in $y\dot{a}bhias$, and $y\dot{e}saam$ and $y\dot{a}saam$.

510. The use of yát as representative stem begins very early: we have yátkāma in the Veda, and yatkārin, yaddevatyà in the Brāhmana; later it grows more general. From the proper root come also a considerable series of derivatives: yátas, yáti, yátra, yáthā, yádā, yádā, yávant, yatará, yatamá; and the compound yādrç.

511. The combination of ya with ka to make an indefinite pronoun has been noticed above (507). Its own repetition — as ydd-yat — gives it sometimes a like meaning, won through the distributive.

512. One or two marked peculiarities in the Sanskrit use of the relative may be here briefly noticed:

a. A very decided preference for putting the relative clause before that to which it relates: thus, ydh sunvatah sakhā tasmā indrāya gāyata (RV.), 'who is the friend of the soma-presser, to that Indra sing ye'; yār yajā am paribhúr ási sá id devēşu gachati (RV.), 'what offering thou protectest, that in truth goes to the gods'; yé trisaptah pariyanti balā tēsār dadhātu me (AV.), 'what thrice seven go about, their strength may he assign to me'; asā yó adharād grhās tātra santv arāyyāh (AV.), 'what house is yonder in the depth, there let the witches be'; sahā yán me ásti téna (TB.), 'along with that which is mine'; harsānār vacanam yat tu tan mār dahati (MBh.), 'but what the words of the swans were, that burns me'; sarvasya locanam çāstram yasya nā 'sty andha eva sah (H.), 'who does not possess learning, the eye of everything, blind indeed is he'. The other arrangement is comparatively unusual.

b. A frequent conversion of the subject or object of a verb by an added relative into a substantive clause: thus, $m \acute{e} m \acute{a} m pr \acute{a} "pat p \bar{a} \acute{a} ruseyo vadh \acute{o}$ ydh (AV.), 'may there not reach him a human deadly weapon' (lit'ly, 'what is such a weapon'); pári no pāhi yád dhánam (AV.), 'protect of us what wealth [there is]'; apāmārgó 'pa mārstu ksetriyám capáthac ca yáh (AV.), 'may the cleansing plant cleanse away the disease and the curse'; puskarena hytam rājyam yac cā 'nyad vasu kimcana [MBh.], 'by Pushkara was taken away the kingdom and whatever other property [there was]'.

Emphatic Pronoun.

513. The isolated and uninflected pronominal word EQUH stayam (from the root sta) signifies 'self, own self'. By its form it appears to be a nom. sing., and it is oftenest used as nominative, but along with words of all persons and numbers; and not seldom it represents other cases also.

Svayam is also used as a stem in composition: thus, svayanijā, svayambhā. But sva itself (usually adjective: below, 516) has the same value in composition: and even its inflected forms are (in the older language very rarely) used as reflexive pronoun.

Nouns used pronominally.

514. The noun $\bar{a}tman$, 'soul', is widely employed, in the singular, as reflexive pronoun of all three persons.

The adjective *bhavant*, f. *bhavafi*, is used (as already pointed out: **456**) in respectful address as substitute for the pronoun of the second person. Its construction with the verb is in accordance with its true character, as a word of the third person.

Pronominal Derivatives.

515. From pronominal roots and stems, as well as from the larger class of roots and from noun-stems, are formed by the ordinary suffixes of adjective derivation certain words and classes of words, which have thus the character of pronominal adjectives.

Some of the more 'important of these may be briefly noticed here.

516. Possessives. From the representative stems mad etc. are formed the adjectives madiya, asmadiya, tradiya, yuşmadiya, tadiya, and yadiya, which are used in a possessive sense: 'relating to me, mine', and so on.

Other possessives are māmaká (also mámaka, RV.) and tāvaká, from the genitives mama and tava.

An analogous derivative from the genitive $am \hat{u}_i y a$ is $\bar{a}m u_i y \bar{a} y a n \hat{a}$ (AV. etc.), 'descendant of such a one'.

It was pointed out above (493) that the "genitives" asmákam and yusmákam are really stereotyped cases of possessive adjectives. Corresponding to *srayám* (518) is the possessive *sva*, meaning 'own', as relating to all persons and numbers. The RV. has once the corresponding simple possessive of the second person, *tvá*, 'thy'.

For the use of sva as reflexive pronoun, see above, 513, end.

All these words form their feminines in \bar{a} .

Other derivatives of a like value have no claim to be mentioned here. But (excepting *sva*) the possessives are so rarely used as to make but a small figure in the language, which prefers generally to indicate the possessive relation by the genitive case of the pronoun itself.

517. By the suffix vant are formed from the pronominal roots, with prolongation of their final vowels, the adjectives mavant, travant, yusmavant, yuvavant, tavant, etavant, yavant, meaning of my sort, like me', etc. Of these, however, only the last three are in use in the later language, in the sense of 'tantus' and 'guantus'. They are inflected like other adjective stems in vant, making their feminines in vant (452 ff.).

Words of similar meaning from the roots *i* and *ki* are *iyant* and *kiyant*, inflected in the same manner: see above, **451**.

519. From *ta*, *ka*, *ya* come *táti*, 'so many', *káti*, 'how many?' *yáti*, 'as many'. They have a quasi-numeral character, and are inflected (like the numerals *páñca* etc.: above, **433**) only in the plural, and with the bare stem as nom. and accus.: thus, N.A. *táti*; I. etc. *tátöhis*, *tátöhyas*, *tátīnām*, *tátişu*.

520. From ya (in V. and Br.) and ka come the comparatives and superlatives yatará and yatamá, and katará and katamá; and from i, the comparative *itara*. For their inflection, see below, **523**.

521. Derivatives with the suffix ka, sometimes conveying a diminutive or a contemptuous meaning, are made from certain of the pronominal roots and stems (and may, according to the grammarians, be made from them all): thus, from ta, takám,

takát, takás; from sa, saká; from ya, yakás, yaká, yaké; from asāú, asakāú; from amu, amuka.

For the numerous and frequently used adverbs formed from pronominal roots, see Adverbs (below, chapter XVI.).

Adjectives declined pronominally.

522. A number of adjectives — some of them coming from pronominal roots, others more or less analogous with pronouns in use — are inflected, in part or wholly, according to the pronominal declension (like \overline{n} ta, 495). Thus:

523. The comparatives and superlatives from pronominal roots — namely, *katará* and *katamá*, *yatará* and *yatamá*, and *itara*; also anyá, 'other', and its comparative anyatará — are declined like ta throughout. Their feminine stems are in \bar{a} .

But even from these words forms made according to the adjective declension are sporadically met with (e. g. $itar\bar{a}y\bar{a}m$, K.).

524. Others words are so inflected except in the nom.acc.-voc. sing. neut., where they have the ordinary adjective form *am*, instead of the pronominal *at* (*ad*). Such are *sárva*, 'all', *víçva*, 'all, every', δka , 'one'.

These, also, are not without exception, at least in the earlier language (e. g. vfcvaya, vfcvat, RV.; ℓke loc. sing., AV.).

525. Yet other words follow the same model usually, or in some of their significations, or optionally; but in other senses, or without known rule, lapse into the adjective inflection.

Such are the comparatives and superlatives from propositional stems: ádhara and adhamá, ántara and ántama, ápara and apamá, ávara and avamá, úttara and uttamá, úpara and upamá. Of these, pronominal forms are decidedly more numerous from the comparatives than from the superlatives.

Further, the superlatives (without corresponding comparatives) paramá, caramá, madhyamá; and also anyatama (whose positive and comparative belong to the class first mentioned: **523**).

Further, the words pára, 'distant, other'; púrva, 'prior, east'; dáksina, 'right, south'; ubháya (f. ubháyī or ubhayí), 'of both kinds or parties'; and the rare sama (accentless), 'any or every one', simá, 'each, all', néma, 'the one, half'; and the possessive svá.

526. Occasional forms of the pronominal declension are met with from numeral adjectives: e. g. prathamásyūs, trťlyasyūm; and from other words having an indefinite numeral character: thus, dipa, 'few'; ardhá, 'half'; kévala, 'all'; dvítaya, 'of the two kinds' — and others.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUGATION.

527. THE subject of conjugation or verbal inflection involves, as in the other languages of the family, the distinctions of voice, tense, mode, number, and person.

Then, besides the simpler or ordinary conjugation of a verbal root, there are certain more or less fully developed secondary or derivative conjugations.

528. Voice. There are (as in Greek) two voices, active and middle, distinguished by a difference in the personal endings. This distinction is a pervading one: there is no active personal form which does not have its corresponding middle, and *vice versa*; and it is extended also in part to the participles (but not to the infinitive).

529. An active form is called by the Hindu grammarians *parasmāi padam*, 'a word for another', and a middle form is called *ātmane padam*, 'a word for one's self': the terms might be best paraphrased by 'transitive' and 'reflexive'. And the distinction thus expressed is doubtless the original foundation of the difference of active and middle forms: in the recorded condition of the language, however, the antithesis of transitive and reflexive meaning is in no small measure blurred, or even altogether effaced.

530. Some verbs are conjugated in both voices, others in one only; sometimes a part of the tenses are inflected only in one voice, others only in the other or in both; of a verb usually inflected in one voice sporadic forms of the other occur; and sometimes the voice differs according as the verb is compounded with certain prepositions.

581. The middle forms outside the present-system (for which there is a special passive inflection: see below, 768),

and sometimes also within that system, are liable to be used likewise in a passive sense.

582. Tense. The tenses are as follows: 1. a present. with 2. an imperfect, closely related with it in form, having a prefixed augment; 3. a perfect, made with reduplication (to which in the Veda is added, 4. a so-called pluperfect, made from it with prefixed augment); 5. an aorist, of three different formations: a. simple; b. reduplicated; c. sibilant; 6. a future, with 7. a conditional, an augment-tense, standing to it in the relation of an imperfect to a present; and 8. a second, a periphrastic, future (not found in the Veda.

The tenses here distinguished (in accordance with prevailing usage) as imperfect, perfect, pluperfect, and aorist receive those names from their correspondence in mode of formation with tenses so called in other languages of the family, especially in Greek, and not at all from differences of time designated by them. In no period of the Sanskrit language is there any expression of imperfect or pluperfect time — nor of perfect time, except in the older language, where the "aorist" has this value; later, imperfect, perfect, and aorist (of rare use) are so many undiscriminated past tenses or preterits: see below, under the different tenses.

533. Mode. In respect to mode, the difference between the classical Sanskrit and the older language of the Veda — and, in a less degree, of the Brähmanas — is especially great.

In the Veda, the present tense has, besides its indicative inflection, a subjunctive, of considerable variety of formation, an optative, and an imperative (in 2d and 3d persons). The same three modes are found, though of much less frequent occurrence, as belonging to the perfect; and they are made also from the aorists, being of especial frequency from the simple aorist. The future has no modes (an occasional case or two are purely exceptional).

In the classical Sanskrit, the present adds to its indicative an optative and an imperative — of which last, moreover. the first persons are a remnant of the old subjunc-

tive. And the aorist has also an optative, of somewhat peculiar inflection, usually called the precative (or benedictive).

534. The present, perfect, and future tenses have each of them, alike in the earlier and later language, a pair of participles, active and middle, sharing in the various peculiarities of the tense-formations; and in the Veda are found such participles belonging also to the aorist.

535. Tense-systems. The tenses, then, with their accompanying modes and participles, fall into certain wellmarked groups or systems:

I. The present-system, composed of the present tense with its modes, its participle, and its preterit which we have called the imperfect.

II. The perfect-system, composed of the perfect tense (with, in the Veda, its modes and its preterit, the so-called pluperfect) and its participle.

III. The aorist-system, or systems, simple, reduplicated, and sibilant, composed of the aorist tense along with, in the later language, its "precative" optative (but, in the Veda, with its various modes and its participle).

IV. The future-systems: a. the old or sibilant future, with its accompanying preterit, the conditional, and its participle; and b. the new periphrastic future.

536. Number and Person. The verb has, of course, the same three numbers with the noun, namely singular, dual, and plural; and in each number it has the three persons, first, second, and third. All of these are made in every tense and mode — except that the first persons of the imperative numbers are supplied from the subjunctive. 537. Verbal adjectives and nouns: Participles. The participles belonging to the tense-systems have been already spoken of above (534). There is besides, coming directly from the root of the verb, a participle, prevailingly of past and passive (or sometimes neuter) meaning. Future passive participles, or gerundives, of several different formations, are also made.

538. Infinitives. In the older language, a very considerable variety of derivative abstract nouns — only in a few sporadic instances having anything to do with the tensesystems — are used in an infinitive or quasi-infinitive sense; most often in the dative case, but sometimes also in the accusative, in the genitive and ablative, and (very rarely) in the locative. In the classical Sanskrit, there remains a single infinitive, of accusative case-form, having nothing to do with the tense-systems.

539. Gerund. A so-called gerund (or absolutive) being, like the infinitive, a stereotyped case-form of a derivative noun — is a part of the general verb-system in both the earlier and later language, being especially frequent in the latter. In the Veda it has a somewhat various form; in the later language, it has only two forms, one for simple verbs, and the other for compound. Its value is that of an indeclinable active participle, of indeterminate but prevailingly past tense-character.

A second gerund, an adverbially used accusative in form, is found, but only rarely, both earlier and later.

540. Secondary conjugations. The secondary or derivative conjugations are as follows: a. the passive; b. the intensive; c. the desiderative; d. the causative. In these, a conjugation-stem, instead of the simple root, underlies the whole system of inflection. Yet there is clearly to be seen in them the character of a present-system, expanded

into a more or less complete conjugation; and the passive is so purely a present-system that it will be described in the chapter devoted to that part of the inflection of the verb.

Under the same general head belongs the subject of denominative conjugation, or the conversion of noun and adjective-stems into conjugation-stems. Further, that of compound conjugation, whether by the prefixion of prepositions to roots or by the addition of auxiliary verbs to noun and adjective-stems. And finally, that of periphrastic conjugation, or the looser combination of auxiliaries with verbal nouns and adjectives.

541. The characteristic of a proper (finite or personal) verb-form is its personal ending. By this alone is determined its character as regards number and person — and in part also as regards mode and tense. But the distinctions of mode and tense are mainly made by the formation of tense and mode-stems, to which, instead of to the pure root, the personal endings are appended.

In this chapter will be given a general account of the personal endings, and also of the formation of mode-stems from tense-stems, and of those elements in the formation of tensestems — the augment and the reduplication — which are found in more than one tense-system. Then, in the following chapters, each tense-system will be taken up by itself, and the methods of formation of its stems, both tense-stems and mode-stems, and their combination with the endings, will be described in detail.

Personal Endings.

542. The endings of verbal inflection are, as was pointed out above, different throughout in the active and middle voices. They are also, as in Greek, usually of two somewhat varying forms for the same person in the same voice: one fuller, called primary; the other briefer, called secondary. There are also less pervading differences, depending upon other conditions.

A condensed statement of all the variaties of ending for each person and number here follows. 543. Singular: First person. The primary ending in the active is *mi*. The subjunctive, however (later imperative), has *mi* instead; and in the oldest Veda this *ni* is sometimes wanting, and the person ends in \bar{a} (as if the *ni* of $\bar{a}ni$ were dropped). The secondary ending is *m*; and to this *m* an *a* has come to be so persistently prefixed, appearing always where the tense-stem does not itself end in *a* (*vam* for *varm* or *varam* in RV., once, is an isolated anomaly), that it is necessary to reckon *am* as ending, alternate with *m*. But the perfect tense has neither *mi* nor *m*; its ending is simply *a* (sometimes $\bar{a}: 248 c$): or, from \bar{a} -roots, $\bar{a}u$.

The primary middle ending, according to the analogy of the other persons, would be regularly *me*. But no tense or mode, at any period of the language, shows any relic whatever of a *m* in this person: the primary ending, present as well as perfect, from *a*-stems and others alike, is e; and to it corresponds *i* as secondary ending, which blends with the final of an *a*-stem to *e*. The optative has, however, *a* instead of *i*; and in the subjunctive (later imperative) appears $\bar{a}i$ for *e*.

544. Second person. In the active, the primary ending is *si*, which is shortened to *s* as secondary: as to the loss of this *s* after a final radical consonant, see below, 555. But the perfect and the imperative desert here entirely the analogy of the other forms. The perfect ending is invariably *tha* (or *thā*, 248 c). The imperative is far less regular. The fullest form of its ending is *dhi*; which, however, is more often reduced to *hi*; and in the great majority of verbs (including all *a*-stems, at every period of the language) no ending is present, but the bare stem stands as personal form. In a very small class of verbs (722) *āna* is the ending. The Veda has also an ending *tāt*; and this is even used sporadically in other persons of the imperative (see below, 570—1).

In the middle voice, the primary ending, both present and perfect, is se. The secondary stands in no apparent relation to this, being $th\bar{a}s$; and in the imperative is found only sva (or $sv\bar{a}$: 248 c, which in the Veda is not seldom to be read as sua. In the older language, se is sometimes strengthened to $s\bar{a}i$ in the subjunctive.

545. Third person. The active primary ending is ti; the secondary, t: as to the loss of the latter after a final radical consonant, see below, 555. But in the imperative appears instead the peculiar ending tu; and in the perfect no characteristic consonant is present, and the third person has the same ending as the first.

The primary middle ending is te, with ta as corresponding secondary. In the older language, te is often strengthened to $t\bar{as}$ in the subjunctive. In the perfect, the middle third person has, like the active, the same ending with the first, namely esimply; and in the older language, the third person present also often loses the distinctive part of its termination, and comes to coincide in form with the first. To this e perhaps corresponds, as secondary, the i of the acrist 3d pers. passive (842 ff.). The imperative has $t\bar{am}$ (or, in the Veda, rarely \bar{am}) for its ending.

546. Dual: First person. Both in active and in middle, the dual first person is in all its varieties precisely like the corresponding plural, only with substitution of v for the m of the latter: thus. ras (no vasi has been found to occur), va, vahe, vahi, vahāi. The person is, of course, of comparatively rare use, and from the Veda no form in vas, even, is quotable.

547. Second and Third persons. In the active, the primary ending of the second person is *thas*, and that of the third is *tas*; and this relation of *th* to *t* appears also in the perfect, and runs through the whole series of middle endings. The perfect endings are primary, but have *u* instead of *a* as vowel; and an *a* has become so persistently prefixed that their forms have to be reckoned as *athus* and *atus*. The secondary endings exhibit no definable relation to the primary in these two persons; they are *tam* and $t\bar{a}m$; and they are used in the imperative as well.

In the middle, a long \bar{a} — which, however, with the final a of a-stems becomes ϵ — has become prefixed to all dual endings of the second and third persons, so as to form an inseparable part of them. The primary endings, present and perfect, are $\bar{a}the$ and $\bar{a}te$; the secondary (and imperative) are $\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ and $\bar{a}tum$ (or, with stem-final a, ethe etc.).

The Rig-Veda has a very few forms in *āithe* and *āite*, apparently from ethe and ete with subjunctive strengthening (they are all detailed below: ase **615**, 701, 787, 752, 836, 1008, 1043).

549. Plural: First person. The earliest form of the active ending is mass, which in the oldest language is more frequent than the briefer mas (in RV., as five to one; in AV., however, only as three to four). In the classical Sanskrit, mas in the exclusive primary ending; but the secondary abbreviated must belongs also to the perfect and the subjunctive (imperative). In the Veda, must often becomes $m\bar{a}$ (248 c), especially in the perfect

The primary middle ending is make. This is lightened in the moundary form to maki; and, on the other hand, it is regularly (in the Veda, not invariably) strengthened to mahāi in the subjunctive (imperative).

549. Second person. The active primary ending is tha. The secondary, also imperative, ending is ta (in the Veda, $t\bar{a}$ only once in impv.). But in the perfect any characteristic consonant is wanting, and the ending is simply a. In the Veda, the syllable na, of problematic origin, is not infrequently added to both forms of the ending, making thana (rarely thanā) and tana. The forms in which this occurs will be detailed below, under the different formations: the addition is very rarely made excepting to persons of the first general conjugation.

The middle primary ending is dhve, which belongs to the perfect as well as the present. In the subjunctive of the older language it is sometimes strengthened to $dhv\bar{a}i$. The secondary (and imperative) ending is dhvam (in RV., once dhva); and $dhv\bar{a}t$ is once met with in the imperative (570). In the Veda, the v of all these endings is sometimes resolved into u, and the ending becomes dissyllabic.

550. Third person. The full primary ending is anti in the active, with ante as corresponding middle. The middle secondary ending is anta, to which should correspond an active ant; but of the t only altogether questionable traces are left, in the euphonic treatment of a final n (207); the ending is an. In the imperative, antu and antām take the place of anti and ante. The initial a of all these endings is like that of am in the 1st sing., disappearing after the final a of a tense-stem.

Moreover, anti, antu, ante, antām, anta are all liable to be weakened by the loss of their nasal, becoming ati etc. In the active, this weakening takes place only after reduplicated stems (and after a few roots which are treated as if reduplicated: 639 ff.); in the middle, it occurs after all tense-stems save those ending in a.

Further, for the secondary active ending an there is a substitute us (or ur: 169, end), which is used in the same reduplicating verbs that change anti to ati etc., and which accordingly appears as a weaker correlative of an. The same us is also used universally in the perfect, in the optative (not in the subjunctive), in those forms of the aorist whose stem does not end in a, and in the imperfect of roots ending in \bar{a} , and a few others (621).

The perfect middle has in all periods of the language the peculiar ending re, and the optative has the allied ran, in this person. In the Veda, a variety of other endings containing a r as distinctive consonant are met with : namely, re (and ire) and rate in the present; rata in the optative (both of present and of

aorist; *rire* in the perfect; *ranta*, *ran*, and *ram* in aorists (and in an imperfect or two): $r\bar{a}m$ and $rat\bar{a}m$ in the imperative. The three *rate*, *rat\bar{a}m*, and *rata* are found even in the later language in one or two verbs (**629**).

551. Below are given, for convenience, in tabular form, the schemes of endings as accepted in the classical or later language: namely, **a.** the regular primary endings, used in the present indicative and the future (and the subjunctive in part); and **b.** the regular secondary endings, used in the imperfect, the conditional, the aorist, the optative (and the subjunctive in part); and further, of special schemes, **c.** the perfect endings (chiefly primary, especially in the middle); and **d.** the imperative endings (chiefly secondary). To the so-called imperative endings of the first person is prefixed the \bar{a} which is practically a part of them, though really containing the mode-sign of the subjunctive from which they are derived.

552. Further, a part of the endings are marked with an accent, and a part are left unaccented. The latter are those which never, under any circumstances, receive the accent; the former are accented in considerable classes of verbs, though by no means in all. It will be noticed that, in general, the unaccented endings are those of the singular active; but the 2d sing. imperative has an accented ending; and, on the other hand, the whole series of 1st persons imperative, active and middle, have unaccented endings (this being a characteristic of the subjunctive formation which they represent.

553. The schemes of normal endings, then, are as follows:

			-	-		
		active.			middle	
	8.	đ.	p .	s .	đ.	p.
1	mi	vás	más	é	váhe	máhe
2	sí	thás	thá	sé	đthe	dhvé
3	ti	tás	ánti, áti	té	áte	ânte, âte
			b. Secondary	r Endings.		
1	am	vá	má	í, á	váhi	máhi
2	8	tåm	tá	thás	áthām	dhvåm
8	t	lám	án, ús	tá	átām	ánta, áta , rán
			c. Perfect I	Endings.		
1	a	vá	má	E	våhe	máhe
2	tha	åthus	á	sé	áthe	dhvé
8	a	átus	ús	é	áte	ré

a. Primary Endings.

PERSONAL ENDINGS.

d. Imperative Endings.

1	āni	āva	āma	āi	āvahāi	āmahāi
2	dhí, hí, —	tám	tá	svá	áthām	dhvám
8	tu	tắm	ántu, átu	tắm	átām	åntäm, åtäm

554. In general, the rule is followed that an accented ending, if dissyllabic, is accented on its first syllable — and the constant union-vowels are regarded, in this respect, as integral parts of the endings. But the 3d pl. ending ate of the pres. indic. middle has in RV. the accent ate in a number of verbs (see 613, 685, 699, 718); and an occasional instance is met with in other endings: thus, mahé (see 719, 735).

555. The secondary endings of the second and third persons singular, as consisting of an added consonant without vowel, should regularly (150) be lost whenever the root or stem to which they are to be added itself ends in a consonant. And this rule is in general followed; yet not without exceptions. Thus:

a. A root ending in a dental mute sometimes drops this final mute instead of the added s in the second person; and, on the other hand, a root or stem ending in s sometimes drops this s instead of the added t in the third person — in either case, establishing the ordinary relation of s and t in these persons, instead of s and s, or t and t. A similar loss of any other final consonant before the ending is exceedingly rare. For instances, see below, **692**.

b. Again, a union-vowel is sometimes introduced before the ending, either a or \overline{i} : see below, 621, 631, 819, 880.

In a few isolated cases in the older language, this \overline{i} is changed to $\overline{a}i$: see below, 904 b, 1068.

556. The changes of form which roots and stems undergo in their combinations with these endings will be pointed out in detail below, under the various formations. Here may be simply mentioned in advance, as by far the most important among them, a distinction of stronger and weaker form of stem in large classes of verbs, standing in relation with the accent — the stem being of stronger form when the accent falls upon it, or before an accentless ending, and of weaker form when the accent is on the ending.

Of the endings marked as accented in the scheme, the ta of 2d pl. is not infrequently in the Veda treated as unaccented, the tone resting on the stem, which is strengthened. Much less often, the tam of 2d du. is treated in the same way: other endings, only sporadically.

Subjunctive Mode.

557. Of the subjunctive mode (as was pointed out above) only fragments are left in the later or classical language : namely, in the so-called first persons imperative, and in the use (580)

557]

of the imperfect and aorist persons without augment after må prohibitive. In the oldest period, however, it was a very frequent formation, being three or four times as common as the optative in the Rig-Veda, and nearly the same in the Atharvan; but already in the Brähmanas it becomes comparatively rare. Its varieties of form are considerable, and sometimes perplexing.

558. In its most normal and regular formation, a special mode-stem is made for the subjunctive by adding to the tensestem an a — which combines with a final a of the tense-stem to \bar{a} . The accent rests upon the tense-stem, which accordingly has the strong form. Thus, from the strong present-stem dok (\sqrt{duh}) is made the subjunctive-stem doha; from juhó (\sqrt{hu}) , juháva; from yunáj (\sqrt{yuj}) , yunája; from bháva $(\sqrt{bh\bar{u}})$, bhávā; from tudá (\sqrt{tud}) , tudá; from ucyá (pass., \sqrt{vac}), ucyá; and so on.

559. The stem thus formed is inflected in general as an *a*-stem would be inflected in the indicative, with constant accent, and \bar{a} for *a* before the endings of the first person (733) — but with the following peculiarities as to ending etc.:

560. In the active, the 1st sing. has ni as ending: thus, $d\delta h \bar{a} ni$, yunájāni, $bh \bar{a} v \bar{a} ni$. But in the Rig-Veda sometimes \bar{a} simply: thus, $\delta y \bar{a}$, $br \bar{a} v \bar{a}$.

In 1st du., 1st pl., and 3d pl., the endings are always the secondary: thus, dohāva, dohāma, dohan; bhāvāwa, bhāvāma, bhāvām.

In 2d and 3d du. and 2d pl., the endings are always primary: thus, dóhathas, dóhatas, dóhatha; bhúvūthas, bhúvūthas, bhúvūtha.

In 2d and 3d sing., the endings are either primary or secondary: thus, dóhasi or dóhas, dóhati or dóhat; bhávāsi or bhávūs, bhávāti or bhávūt.

Occasionally, forms with double mode-sign \bar{a} (by assimilation to the more numerous subjunctives from tense-stems in a) are met with from nona-stems: thus, ásātha from as; áyās, áyāt, áyān from e (Vi).

561. In the middle, forms with secondary instead of primary endings are very rare, being found only in the 3d pl. (where they are more frequent than the primary), and in a case or two of the 3d sing.

The striking peculiarity of subjunctive middle inflection is the frequent strengthening of e to $\bar{a}i$ in the endings. This is less general in the very earliest language than later. In 1st sing., $\bar{a}i$ alone is found as ending, even in RV.; and in 1st du. also (of rare occurrence), only $\bar{a}vah\bar{a}i$ is met with. In 1st pl., $\bar{a}mah\bar{a}i$ prevails in RV. and AV. ($\bar{a}mahe$ is found a few times), and is alone known later. In 2d sing., $s\bar{a}i$ for se does not occur in RV., but is the only form in AV. and the Brähmanas. In 3d sing., $t\bar{a}i$ for te occurs once in RV., and is the predominant form in AV., and the only one later. In 2d pl., $dhv\bar{a}i$ for dhve is found in one word in RV., and a few times in the Brähmanas. In 3d pl., $nt\bar{a}i$ for nte is the Brähmana form (of far from frequent occurrence; it occurs neither in RV. nor AV. No such dual endings as thāi and tāi, for the and te, are anywhere found; but RV. has in a few words (nine: above, 527, end) āithe and āite, which appear to be a like subjunctive strengthening of ethe and ets (although found in one indicative form, k_{i} , v_{i} , v_{i} . Before the $\bar{a}i$ -endings the penultimate vowel is regularly long \bar{a} ; but ant $\bar{a}i$ instead of $\bar{a}nt\bar{a}i$ is two or three times met with, and once (TS.) at $\bar{a}i$ for $\bar{a}t\bar{a}i$.

562. The subjunctive endings, then, in combination with the subjunctive mode-sign, are as follows:

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	р.	8.	đ.	p.	
1	āni	āva	āma	āi	{āvahāi {āvahe	jārhahāi lāmahe	
2	fasi as	athas	atha	{ase {āsāi	āithe	∫adhve \ādhvāi	
3	fati at	atas	an	fate ātāi	āite	{a nte, anta {āntāi	

And, in further combination with final a of a tense-stem, the initial a of all these endings becomes \bar{a} : thus, for example, in 2d pers.: $\bar{a}si$ or $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}thas$, $\bar{a}tha$, $\bar{a}se$, $\bar{a}dhve$.

563. Besides this proper subjunctive, with mode-sign, in its triple form — with primary, with strengthened primary, and with secondary endings — there is in the older language another, without mode-sign and with secondary endings, or in all respects coinciding with the forms of an augmenttense (imperfect or aorist) save for the absence of the augment. Subjunctives of this character are frequent in RV., decidedly less common in later Vedic, and very little used in the Brähmanas except after $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive (580) — after which they stand also in the later language.

These forms are sometimes called "imperfect subjunctive", but the appellation is an evident misnomer: "improper subjunctive" is preferable. Since (below, 587) the forms of augmented tenses are also freely used in an indicative sense without augment in the oldest Veda, the distinction of the two classes of use is often difficult to make.

As to the uses of the subjunctive, see below, 572 ff.

Optative Mode.

564. As has been already pointed out, the optative is of comparatively rare occurrence in the language of the Vedas; but it gains rapidly in frequency, and already in the Brāhmanas greatly outnumbers the subjunctive, which still later it comes almost entirely to replace.

Its mode of formation is the same in all periods of the language.

Whitney, Grammar.

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565. The optative mode-sign is in the active voice a different one. according as it is added to a tense-stem ending in a, or in some other final. In the latter case, it is $y\dot{a}$, accented; this $y\bar{a}$ is appended to the weaker form of the tense-stem, and takes the regular series of secondary endings. with. in 3d plur., us instead of an, and loss of the \bar{a} before it. After an a-stem, it is \bar{i} , unaccented: this \bar{i} blends with the final a to e (which then is accented or not according to the accent of the a); and the e is maintained unchanged before a vowel-ending (am, us), by means of an interposed euphonic y.

In the middle voice, the mode-sign is \bar{i} throughout, and takes the secondary endings, with a in 1st sing.. and ran in 3d pl. After an *a*-stem, the rules as to its combination to e, the accent of the latter, and its retention before a vowel-ending with interposition of a y, are the same as in the active. After any other final, the weaker form of stem is taken, and the accent is on the ending except in one class of verbs, where it falls upon the tense-stem: see **645**; and the \bar{i} as when combined to e; takes an inserted y before a vowel-ending.

It is, of course, impossible to tell from the form whether i or \bar{i} is combined with the final of an *a*-stem to e; but no good reason appears to exist for assuming i, rather than the \bar{i} which shows itself in the other class of stems in middle voice.

566. The combined mode-sign and endings of the optative. then, are as follows, in their double form, for *a*-stems and for others:

a. for non-a-stems.

		active.		middle.			
	5.	d.	p.	6.	đ.	p .	
1	yắm	yáva	yāma	īyá	īváhi	īmáhi •	
2	yás	yấtam	yāta	īthás	ĩyắthẩm	īdhvám	
3	yất	yấtām	yús	ītá	īyātām	īrún	
		b. combi	ned with the	final of a-	stems.		
1	eyam	eva	ema	eya	evahi	emahi	
2	es	etam	eta	ethūs	eyāthām	edhvam	
8	et	etām	cyus	eta	eyātām	eran	
		1. 1. TT 1					

The $y\bar{a}$ is in the Veda not seldom resolved into $i\bar{a}$.

The Vedic 3d pl. middle forms in *rata* will be detailed below, under the various formations.

567. Precative. Precative forms are such as have a sibilant inserted between the optative-sign and the ending. They are made almost only from the aorist stems, and, though allowed by the grammarians to be formed from every root — the active

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precative from the simple aorist, the middle from the sibilant aorist — are practically of rare occurrence at every period of the language, and especially later.

The inserted s runs in the active through the whole series of persons; in the middle, it is allowed only in the 2d and 3d persons sing. and du., and the 2d pl., and is quotable from the older literature only for the 2d and 3d sing. In the 2d sing. act., the precative form, by reason of the necessary loss of the added s, is not distinguishable from the simple optative; in the 3d sing. act., the same is the case in the later language, which (above, 555) saves the personal ending t instead of the precative-sign s; but the RV. usually, and the other Vedic texts to some extent, have the proper ending $y\bar{a}s$ (for $y\bar{a}st$).

The accent is as in the simple optative.

568. The precative endings, then, accepted in the later language (including, in brackets, those which are identical with the simple optative', are as follows:

active.				middle.			
	8.	d.	p .	8.	d.	р.	
1	yásam	yásva	yắsma	[iyá]	[īváhi]	[īmáhí]	
2	[yắs]	yástam	yásta	īsthás	iyásthām	īdhvám	
3	[yắt]	yðstām	yā sus	īstá	īydstām	[īrán]	

As to the uses of the optative, see below, 572 ff.

Imperative Mode.

569. The imperative has no mode-sign; it is made by adding its own endings directly to the tense-stem, just as the other endings are added to form the indicative tenses.

Hence, in 2d and 3d du. and 2d pl., its forms are indistinguishable from those of the augment-preterit from the same stem with its augment omitted.

The rules as to the use of the different endings — especially in 2d sing., where the variety is considerable — will be given below, in connection with the various tense-systems. The ending $t\bar{a}t$, however, has so much that is peculiar in its use that it calls for a little explanation here.

570. The Imperative in $t\bar{a}t$. This is nowhere a frequent form, though found from the earliest period of the language, and allowed to be made in the latest; in the five leading Vedic texts it is formed from nearly fifty verbs, and has less than seventy occurrences. Its usual value is that of a second person singular; but it occurs as 1st sing. once, in AV. ($\bar{a}vyu-sam$ $j\bar{a}g_{\tau}t\bar{a}d$ aham, 'let me watch till day-break'); as 3d sing., toward a dozen times (e. g. panar má "viçatād rayth, TS., 'let wealth come again to me'; ayām tyásya rájā mūrdhánam of pātayatāt, ÇB., 'the king here shall make

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his head fly off'); and as 2d pl. several times in TS. (e. g. $\bar{a}pah...$ devises mak subfto brūtāt, 'ye waters, announce us to the gods as well-doers'), and many times in a Brāhmana passage (repeated in K. xvi. 21, TB. iii. 6. 1, and AB. ii. 6, 7) — in which, moreover, two authorities (K. and AB.) have once vārayadhvāt for vārayatāt: no other occurrence of dhvāt has been noted.

571. As regards its meaning, this form has been shown (Delbrück) to have prevailingly in the Brāhmanas, and traceably but much less distinctly in the Vedic texts, a specific tense-value added to its mode-value — as signifying, namely, an injunction to be carried out at a later time than the present: it is (like the Latin forms in to and tote) a posterior or future imperative.

Examples are: $ih\bar{a}$ 'vá mā tísthantam abhychí 'ti brūhi tám tú na ágatām pratiprábrūtāt (ÇB.), 'say to her "come to me as I stand just here", and [afterward] announce her to us as having come'; yád ūrdhvás tísthā drávine 'há dhattāt (RV.), 'when thou shalt stand upright, [then] bestow riches here' (and similarly in many cases); utkúkam udvahó bhavo 'dúhya práti dhāvatāt (AV.), 'be a carrier up the ascent; after having carried up, run back again'; vánaspátir ádhi tvā sthūsyati tísya vittāt 'TS.), 'the tree will ascend thee, take [then] note of it'.

According to the grammarians, the form in $t\bar{a}t$ may be used when benediction is intended.

Uses of the Modes.

572. Of the three modes, the imperative is the one most distinct and limited in office, and most unchanged in use throughout the whole history of the language. It signifies a command or injunction — an attempt at the exercise of the speaker's will upon some one or something outside of himself.

This, however (in Sanskrit as in other languages), is by no means always of the same force; the command shades off into a demand, an exhortation, an entreaty, an expression of earnest desire. The imperative also sometimes signifies an assumption or concession; and occasionally, by pregnant construction, it becomes the expression of something conditional or contingent; but it does not acquire any regular use in dependent-clause-making.

573. The optative appears to have as its primary office the expression of wish or desire; in the oldest language, its prevailing use in independent clauses is that to which the name "optative" properly belongs. 575]

The so-called precative forms (567) are restricted to this use, but are not otherwise distinguished from the simple optatives.

But the expression of desire, on the one hand, passes naturally over into that of request or entreaty, so that the optative becomes a softened imperative; and, on the other hand, it comes to signify what is generally desirable or proper, what should or ought to be, and so becomes the mode of prescription; or, yet again, it is weakened into signifying what may or can be, what is likely or usual, and so becomes at last a softened statement of what is.

Further, the optative in dependent clauses, with relative pronouns and conjunctions, becomes a regular means of expression of the conditional and contingent, in a wide and increasing variety of uses.

574. The subjunctive, as has been pointed out, becomes nearly extinct at an early period in the history of the language; there are left of it in classical usage only two relics; the use of its first persons in an "imperative" sense, or to signify a necessity or obligation resting on the speaker, or a peremptory intention on his part; and the use of its other persons, with the negative particle $\mp m \dot{a}$, in a prohibitive or negative imperative sense.

And the general value of the subjunctive from the beginning was what these relics would seem to indicate: its fundamental meaning is perhaps that of requisition, less peremptory than the imperative, more so than the optative. But this meaning is liable to the same modifications and transitions with that of the optative; and subjunctive and optative run closely parallel with one another in the oldest language in their use in independent clauses, and are hardly distinguishable in dependent. And instead of their being (as in Greek) both maintained in use, and endowed with nicer and more distinctive values, the subjunctive gradually disappears, and the optative assumes alone the offices formerly shared by both.

575. The difference, then, between imperative and subjunctive and optative, in their fundamental and most characteristic uses, is one of degree: command, requisition, wish: and no sharp line of division exists between them; they are more or less exchangeable with one another, and combinable in coördinate clauses. ī

Thus, in AV., we have in impv.: catán jīva çarádaļ, 'do thou live a hundred autumns'; ubhāú tāú jīvatām jarádaṣṭī, 'let them both live to attain old age'; — in subj., adyá jīvāni, 'let me live this day'; çatám jīvāti çarádaļ, 'he shall live a hundred autumns'; — in opt., jīvema çarádām çatáni, 'may we live hundreds of autumns'; sárvam äyur jīvyāsam (prec.), 'I would fain live out my whole term of life'. Here the modes would be interchangeable with a hardly perceptible change of meaning,

Examples, again, of different modes in coordinate construction are: iyám agne nárī pátim videsta... súvānā putrán máhisī bhavāti gatvá pátim subhágā ví rājatu (AV.), 'may this woman, O Agnil find a spouse; giving birth to sons she shall become a chieftainess: having attained a spouse let her rule in happiness; gopāyá nah svastáye prabúdhe nah púnar dadah (TS.), 'watch over us for our welfare, grant unto us to wake again'; syán nah sūnúh... sá te sumatir bhūtv asmé (RV.), 'may there be to us a son; let that favor of thine be ours'. It is not very seldom the case that versions of the same passage in different texts show different modes as various readings.

There is, in fact, nothing in the earliest employment of these modes to prove that they might not all be specialized uses of forms originally equivalent — having, for instance, a general future meaning.

576. As examples of the less characteristic use of subjunctive and optative in the older language, in independent clauses, may be quoted the following: $\dot{a} gh\bar{a} t\dot{a} gach\bar{a}n \, ittar\bar{a}$ yugʻani (RV.). 'those later ages will doubtless come'; yád ... ná marā iá mányase (RV.), 'if thou thinkest "I shall not die'''; ná tá naçanti ná dubhāti táskarah (RV.), 'they do not become lost; no thief can harm them'; kásmāi deváya havíşā vidhema (RV.), 'to what god shall we offer oblation?' agnínā rayim açnavat... divé-dive (RV.), 'by Agni one may gain wealth every day'; utāt 'nām brahmáne dadyāt táthā syoná çivá syāt (AV.), 'one should give her, however, to a Brahman; in that case she will be propitious and favorable'; *dhar-ahar dadyāt* (ÇB.), 'one should give every day'.

577. The uses of the optative in the later language are of the utmost variety, covering the whole field occupied jointly by the two modes in earlier time. A few examples from a single text (MBh.) will be enough to illustrate them: uchistam näi 'va hunjuyam na kuryäm pädadhävanam, 'I will not eat of the remnant of the sacrifice, I will not perform the foot-lavation'; jnätin "rujot, 'let her go to her relations'; näi 'vam sä karhicit kuryät, who should not act thus at any time'; katham vidyäm nalam "Ipum, 'how can I know king Nala?' utsarge samcayah syät tu vindetā 'pi sukham kvacit, 'but in case of her abandonment there may be a chance; she may also find happiness somewhere'; katham vāso vikarteyam na ca budhyeta me priyā, 'how can I cut off the garment and my beloved not wake?'

578. The later use of the first persons subjunctive as socalled imperative involves no change of construction from former time, but only restriction to a single kind of use: thus, divyava, 'let us two play'; kim karavāņi te, 'what shall I do for thee?'

579. The subjunctive with $m\dot{a}$ is in the oldest language almost the sole form of prohibitive expression, and is very common. The kind of subjunctive employed is that which corresponds to the augmentless forms of a past tense; and in the great majority of cases (five sixths in RV., nine tenths in AV.) it is the augmentless aorist that is chosen. Thus: prá pata mé 'há ransthāh (AV.), 'fly away; do not stay here'; dvişánç ca mákyam rádhyatu má cā 'hám dvişaté radham (AV.), 'both let my foe be subject to me, and let me not be subject to my foe'; ure àçyām ábhayam jyśtir indra má no dīrghā abhi naçan tamisrāh (RV.), 'I would win broad fearless light. O Indra; let not the long darknesses come upon us'; má na âyuh prá mosīh (RV.), 'do not steal away our life'; mā bibher (impf.) ná marisyasi (RV.), 'do not fear; thou wilt not die'; mā smāi 'tānt sákhīn kuruthāh (AV.), 'do not make friends of them'.

Only one optative (*bhujema*) is used prohibitively with $m\dot{a}$ in RV., and only once (in a probably corrupted passage) an imperative; neither construction is found in AV.; and the cases in the later language are rare.

580. This very definite and peculiar construction, of an augmentless past tense with $m\bar{a}$, has preserved itself in use, and is occasionally met with in the later language: thus, samāçvasihi mā çucah, 'be comforted, do not grieve'; mā bhāih, 'do not fear' (both MBh.).

But the use of the optative with nd, 'not', in a prohibitive sense appears even (very rarely) in the Veda, and becomes later the prevalent construction; thus, nd risyema kadá caná (RV.), 'may we suffer no harm at any time'; nd $c\bar{a}$ 'tisrjén nd juhuyāt (AV.), 'and if he do not grant permission, let him not sacrifice'; tád u táthā ná kuryāt (ÇB.), 'but he must not do that so'; na divā çayīta (ÇGS.), 'let him not sleep by day'; na tvām vidyur janāh (MBh.), 'let not people know thee'. This in the later language is the correlative of the prescriptive optative, and both are extremely common; so that in a text of prescriptive character the optative forms may come to outnumber the indicative and imperative together (as is the case, for example, in Manu).

581. In all dependent constructions, it is still harder even

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in the oldest language to establish a distinction between subjunctive and optative: a method of use of either is scarcely to be found to which the other does not furnish a practical equivalent — and then, in the later language, such uses are represented by the optative alone. A few examples will be sufficient to illustrate this:

a. After relative pronouns and conjunctions in general: yá vyūchúr yáç ca nūnám vyuchán (RV.), 'which have shone forth [hitherto], and which shall hereafter shine forth'; yó 'to jáyātā asmákam sá éko 'sat (TS.), 'whoever shall be born of her, let him be one of us'; yó vāi tán vidyát pratyáksam sá brahmá véditā syāt (AV.), 'whoever shall know them face to face, he may pass for a knowing priest'; putránām... jātánām jandyāç ca yán (AV.), 'of sons born and whom thou mayest bear'; yásya... dtithir grhán āgáchet (AV.), 'to whosesoever house he may come as guest'; yatamáthā kāmáyeta táthā kuryāt (CB.), 'in whatever way he may choose, so may he do it'; yárhi hótā yájamānasya náma grhūyāt tárhi brūyāt (TS.), 'when the sacrificing priest shall name the name of the offerer, then he may speak'; svarūpam yadā drasium ichethāh (MBh.), 'when thou shalt desire to see thine own form'.

b. In more distinctly conditional constructions: yájāma deván yádi çaknávāma (RV.), 'we will offer to the gods if we shall be able'; yád agne syám ahám tvám tvám vā ghā syá ahám syúş te satyá ihá "çíşah (RV.), 'if I were thou, Agni, or if thou wert I, thy wishes should be realized on the spot'; yó dyám atisárpāt parástān ná sá mucyātāi váruņasya rájňah (AV.), 'though one steal far away beyond the sky, he shall not escape king Varuna'; yád ánāçvān upaváset kşódhukah syād yád açnīyád rudrò 'sya paçán abhí manyeta (TS.), 'if he should continue without eating, he would starve; if he should eat, Rudra would attack his cattle'; prārthayed yadi mām kaçcid daņdyah sa me pumān bhavet (MBh.), 'if any man soever should desire me, he should suffer punishment'. These and the like constructions, with the optative, are very common in the Brāhmanas and later.

The indicative is also used in final clauses after $yath\bar{a}$: thus, $yath\bar{a}$ 'yath naçyati tath \bar{a} vidheyam (H.), 'it must be so managed that he perish' (and thus usually in H.).

With the conditional use of subjunctive and optative is further to be compared that of the so-called "conditional" tense: see below, chap. XII.

582. No distinction of meaning has been established between the modes of the present-system and those (in the older language) of the perfect and aorist-systems.

Participles.

583. Participles, active and middle, are made from all the tense-stems — except the periphrastic future, and, in the later language, the aorist (and aorist participles are rare from the beginning).

584. The general participial endings are म्रत्त् ant (weak form म्रत् at; fem. म्रत्ती antī or म्रती atī: see above, 449) for the active, and म्रान ana (fem. म्राना ana) for the middle. But:

a. After a tense-stem ending in a, the active participial suffix is virtually nt, one of the two a's being lost in the combination of stem-final and suffix.

b. After a tense-stem ending in *a*, the middle participial suffix is *māna* instead of *āna*.

c. The perfect has in the active the peculiar suffix $v\bar{a}vs$ (weakest form us, middle form vat; fem. $us\bar{s}$: see, for the inflection of this participle, above, **458 ff**.).

For details, as to form of stem etc., and for special exceptions, see the following chapters.

Augment.

585. The augment is a short *a*, prefixed to a tense-stem — and, if the latter begin with a vowel, combining with that vowel irregularly into the heavier or *vrddhi* diphthong (186a). It is always (without any exception) the accented element in the verbal form of which it makes a part.

In the Veda, the augment is in a few forms long \bar{a} : thus, $\bar{a}nac$, $\bar{a}var$, $\bar{a}vrni$, $\bar{a}vrni$, $\bar{a}vidhyat$, $\bar{a}yunak$, $\bar{a}yukta$, $\bar{a}rinak$, $\bar{a}rak$.

586. The augment is a sign of past time. And an augment-preterit is made from each of the tense-stems from which

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the system of conjugation is derived: namely, the imperfect, from the present-stem; the pluperfect (in the Veda only), from the perfect-stem; the conditional, from the future-stem; while in the aorist such a preterit stands without any corresponding present indicative.

587. In the older language (mainly in the Veda; the usage is a rare one in the Brāhmana) the augment is often lost, and the augmentless forms have the same value as if they were complete; or, rather more often, they are used as subjunctives (above, 563).

The accentuation of the augmentless forms is throughout accordant with that of the corresponding unaugmented tense — that is to say, where such a tense exists (which is not the case with the varieties of sibilant acrist).

Reduplication.

588. The derivation of conjugational and declensional stems from roots by reduplication, either alone or along with other formative elements, has been already spoken of (259), and the formations in which reduplication appears have been specified: they are, in primary verb-inflection, the present (of a certain class of verbs), the perfect (of nearly all), and the aorist (of a large number); and the intensive and desiderative secondary conjugations contain in their stems the same element.

589. The general principle of reduplication is the prefixion to a root of a part of itself repeated — if it begin with consonants, the initial consonant and the vowel; if it begin with a vowel, that vowel, either alone or with a following consonant. The varieties of detail, however, are very considerable. Thus, especially as regards the vowel, which in present and perfect and desiderative is regularly shorter and lighter in the reduplication than in the root-syllable, in aorist is longer, and in intensive is strengthened. The differences as regards an initial consonant are less, and chiefly confined to the intensive; for the others, certain general rules may be here stated, all further details being left to be given in connection with the account of the separate formations.

590. The consonant of the reduplicating syllable is in general the first consonant of the root: thus, पप्रक् paprach from $\sqrt{$ प्रक् prach; शिसिष çiçliş from $\sqrt{$ सिष् çliş; वुवुध bubudh from $\sqrt{$ वृध्. But:

a. A non-aspirate is substituted in reduplication for an aspirate: thus, $\overline{\zeta UI}$ dadhā from γUI ; $\overline{\Xi PI}$ bibhr from γH bhr.

b. A palatal is substituted for a guttural or for $\overline{q}_i h$: thus, चक् cakr from γ $\overline{q}_i kr$; चिलिद् cikhid from γ लिद् khid; ज्ञयम् jagrabh from γ यम् grabh; जत्ह jahr from γ $\overline{q}_i hr$.

The occasional reversion, on the other hand, of a palatal in the radical syllable to guttural form has been noticed above (216.9).

c. Of two initial consonants, the second, if it be a non-nasal mute preceded by a sibilant, is repeated instead of the first: thus, तस्या tasthā from γ स्या sthā; चस्तन्दु caskand form γ स्वन्दु skand; पस्पृध् pasprdh from γ स्पृध् sprdh: — but सस्म sasmr from γ स्म.

Accent of the Verb.

591. The statements which have been made above, and those which will be made below, as to the accent of verbal forms, apply to those cases in which the verb is actually accented.

But, according to the grammarians, and according to the invariable practice in accentuated texts, the verb is in the great majority of its occurrences unaccented or toneless.

That is to say, of course, the verb in its proper forms, its personal or so-called finite forms. The verbal nouns and adjectives, or the infinitives and participles, are subject to precisely the same laws of accent as other nouns and adjectives.

592. The general rule, covering most of the cases, is this: The verb in an independent clause is unaccented, unless it stand at the beginning of the clause — or also, in metrical text, at the beginning of a $p\bar{a}da$.

For the accent of the verb, as well as for that of the vocative case bove, 314, the beginning of a $p\bar{u}da$ counts as that of a sentence, whatever be the logical connection of the $p\bar{u}da$ with what precedes it.

Examples of the unaccented verb are : agnim ide purchitam, 'I praise

Agni, the house-priest'; sá id devésu gachati, 'that, truly, goes to the gods'; ágne sūpāyanó bhava, 'O Agni, be easy of access'; idám indra crņuhi somapa, 'hear this, O Indra, soma-drinker'; námas te rudra krņumas, 'homage to thee, Rudra, we offer'; yájamānasya paçún pāhi, 'protect the cattle of the sacrificer'.

Hence, there are two principal situations in which the verb retains its accent:

593. First, the verb is accented when it stands at the beginning of a clause — or, in verse, of a $p\bar{a}da$.

Examples of the verb accented at the head of the sentence are, in prose, cúndhadhvam dāívyāya kármane, 'be pure for the divine ceremony'; āpnótī 'mám lokám, 'he wins this world'; — in verse, where the head of the sentence is also that of the pāda, syámé 'd índrasya cármani, 'may we be in Indrá's protection'; darcáya mā yātudhánān, 'show me the sorcerers'; gâmad vájebhir d sá nah, 'may he come with good things to us'; — in verse, where the head of the clause is within the pāda, tésām pāhi crudhí hávam, 'drink of them, hear our call'; sástu mātá sástu pitá sástu cvá sástu vicpátih, 'let the mother sleep, let the father sleep, let the dog sleep, let the master sleep'; víçvakarman námas te pāhy àsmán, 'Viçvakarman, homage to thee; protect us!' yuvám... rájña ūce duhitá prché vām narū, 'the king's daughter said to you "I pray you, ye men"'; vayám te váya indra viddhí su nah prá bharāmahe, 'we offer thee, Indra, strengthening; take note of us'.

Examples of the verb accented at the head of the pāda when this is not the head of the sentence are: áthā te ántamānām vidyáma sumatīnám, 'so may we enjoy thy most intimate favors'; dhūtá 'syá agrúvāi pátim dádhātu pratikāmyām, 'Dhātar bestow upon this girl a husband according to her wish'; yātudhánasya somapa juht prajám, 'slay, O Soma-drinker, the progeny of the sorcerer'.

594. Certain special cases under this head are as follows:

a. As a vocative forms no syntactical part of the sentence to which it is attached, but is only an external appendage to it, a verb following an initial vocative, or more than one, is accented, as if it were itself initial in the clause or $p\bar{u}da$: thus, \dot{a} crutharma cruthi hávam, 'O thou of listening ears, hear our call!' site vándāmahe tvā, 'O Sītā, we reverence thee'; víçve devā vásavo rákşate 'mám, 'all ye gods, ye Vasus, protect this man'; utā ''gaç eakrúşant devā dévā jīváyathā púnah, 'likewise him, O gods, who has committed crime, ye gods, ye make to live again'.

b. If more than one verb follow a word or words syntactically connected with them all, only the first loses its accent, the others being treated as if they were initial verbs in separate clauses, with the same adjuncts understood: thus, tarámir íj jayati kséti púsyati, 'successful he conquers, rules, thrives'; amûrān... párāca indra prá mṛnā jahī ca, 'our foes, Indra, drive far away and slay'; asmábhyam jesi yótsi ca, 'for us conquer and fight': ágnāsomā havísah prásthitasya vītžm háryatam vṛsanā juséthām, 'O Agni and Soma, of the oblation set forth partake, enjoy, ye mighty ones, take pleasure'. c. In like manner (but much less often), an adjunct, as subject or object, standing between two verbs and logically belonging to both, is reckoned to the first alone, and the second has the initial accent: thus, jahi prajára náyasva ca, 'slay the progeny, and bring [it] hither'; craotu nah subhágū bódhatu tmánū, 'may the blessed one hear us, [and may she] kindly regard [us].

d. As to cases in which a single verb standing between two adjuncts has the initial accent perhaps as being in the division of the sentence reckoned to the second rather than the first, see below, 597.

595. Second, the verb is accented, whatever its position, in a dependent clause.

a. The dependency of a clause is in the very great majority of cases conditioned by the relative pronoun ya, or one of its derivatives or compounds. Thus: yám yajñám paribhár ási, 'what offering thou protectest'; ó té yanti yé aparízu paçyán, 'they are coming who shall behold her hereafter'; sahá yán me ásti téna, 'along with that which is mine'; yátra nah pűrve pitárah pareyúh, 'whither our fathers of old departed'; adyá murīya yádi yūtudháno ásmi, 'let me die on the spot, if I am a sorcerer'; yáthá 'hūny anupūrvám bhávanti, 'as days follow one another in order'; yávad idám bhúvanam víçvam ásti, 'how great this whole creation is'; yátkāmās te juhumás tán no astu, 'what desiring we sacrifice to thee, let that become ours'; yatamás tíirpsāt, 'whichever one desires to enjoy'.

The presence of a relative word in the sentence does not, of course, accent the verb, unless this is really the predicate of a dependent clause: thus, ápa tyé tāyávo yathā yanti, 'they make off like thieves (as thieves do)'; yát sthá jágac ca rejate, 'whatever [is] movable and immovable trembles'; yathākámam ní padyate, 'he lies down at his pleasure'.

b. The particle ca when it means 'if', and céd (ca + fd), 'ii', give an accent to the verb: thus, brahmá céd dhástam ágrahīt, 'if a Brahman has grasped her hand'; tvám ca soma no váço jīvátum ná marāmahe, 'if thou, Soma, willest us to live, we shall not die'; á ca gáchān mitrám enā dadhāma, 'if he will come here, we will make friends with him'.

c. There are a very few passages in which the logical dependence of a clause containing no subordinating word appears to give the verb its accent: thus, sâm âçvapurņāç câranti no nâro 'smâkam indra rathíno jayantu, 'when our men, horse-winged, come into conflict, let the chariot-fighters of our side, O Indra, win the victory'. Rarely, too, an imperative so following another imperative that its action may seem a consequence of the latter's is accented; thus, tûyam á gahi kâņveşu sú sâcā píba, 'come hither quickly; drink along with the Kanvas' (i. e. in order to drink).

d. A few other particles give the verb an accent, in virtue of a slight subordinating force belonging to them: thus, especially hf (with its negation nahf, which in its fullest value means 'for', but shades off from that into a mere asseverative sense; the verb or verbs connected with it are always accented: thus, vf té muñcantārn vimúco hf sánti, 'let them release him, for they are releasers'; yác cid dhf... anāçastá iva smási, 'if we, forsooth, are as it were unrenowned'; — also néd $(n\dot{a} + id)$, meaning 'lest, that not': thus, nét tvā tápāti sūro arcisā, 'that the sun may not burn thee with his beam'; virājam néd vichinādānī 'ti, 'saying to himself, "lest I cut off the virāj"; — and the interrogative kuvid, 'whether?' thus, ukthébhik kuvid āgámat, 'will he come hither for our praises?'

596. But further, the verb of a prior clause is not infrequently accented in antithetical construction.

Sometimes, the relation of the two clauses is readily capable of being regarded as that of protasis and apodosis; but often, also, such a relation is very indistinct; and the cases of antithesis shade off into those of ordinary coördination. the line between them appearing to be rather arbitrarily drawn.

In the majority of cases, the antithesis is made distincter by the presence in the two clauses of correlative words, especially any a — anya, eka — eka, $v\bar{a}$ — $v\bar{a}$, ca — ca: thus, $pr\dot{a}$ - $pr\ddot{a}$ 'nyé yánti páry anyá āsate, 'some go on and on, others sit about' (as if it were 'while some go' etc.); úd $v\bar{a}$ siñcádhvam úpa $v\bar{a}$ prnadhvam, 'either pour out, or fill up'; sám ce 'dhyásvā 'gne prá ca vardhaye 'mám, 'both do thou thyself become kindled, Agni, and do thou increase this person'. But it is also made without such help: thus, $pr\dot{a}' j\bar{a}t\bar{a}h$ prajá janáyati pári prájātā grhņāti, 'the unborn progeny he generates, the born he embraces'; ápa yuşmád ákramīn ná 'smán upávartate, '[though] she has gone away from you, she does not come to us': ná 'ndhò 'dhvaryúr bhávati ná yajñám ráksānsi ghnanti, 'the priest does not become blind, the demons do not destroy the sacrifice'.

597. Where the verb would be the same in the two antithetical clauses, it is not infrequently omitted in the second: thus, beside complete expressions like urvi $c\dot{a}$ 'si vásvi $c\ddot{a}$ 'si, 'both thou art broad and thou art good', occur, much oftener, incomplete ones like agnir amásmin loká ásid yamb 'smín, 'Agni was in yonder world, Yama [was] in this'; asthná 'nyáh prajáh pratitisthanti mūńsénā 'nyáh, 'by bone some creatures stand firm, by flesh others'; dvipác ca sárvam no ráksa cáluspād yác ca nah svám, 'both protect everything of ours that is biped, and also whatever that is quadruped belongs to us'.

Examples from the Brähmanas like the first of those here given (with the second verb expressed), and like the third (in composition with a preposition), show that this explanation of the verbal accent is preferable to the one formerly given — namely, that the verb is to be regarded as understood in the first clause and initial in the second.

598. In a very small number of more or less doubtful cases, the verb appears to be accented for emphasis.

Thus, before caná, 'in any wise'; in connection with the asseverative particles *id*, *dha*, kfla, $a\bar{n}g\dot{a}$. $ev\dot{a}$, but sporadically; and so on. The detail and examination of the cases is not worth while here^{*}.

^{*} The specialities and irregularities of the RV. as regards verbal accent are discussed by A. Mayr in Sitzungsb. d. Wiener Akad. for 1871; of the AV., by W. D. Whitney in J. A. O. S., vol. v. (and the second seco

CHAPTER IX.

THE PRESENT-SYSTEM.

599. The present-system, or system of forms coming from the present-stem, is composed (as was pointed out above) of a present indicative tense, along with a subjunctive (mostly lost in the classical language), an optative, an imperative, and a participle, and also a past tense, an augment-preterit, to which we give (by analogy with the Greek) the name of imperfect.

These forms generally go in Sanskrit grammar by the name of "special tenses", while the other tense-systems are styled "general tenses" — as if the former were made from a special tense-stem or modified root, while the latter came, all alike, from the root itself. There is no reason why such a distinction and nomenclature should be retained; since, on the one hand, the "special tenses" come in one set of verbs directly from the root, and, on the other hand, the other tense-systems are mostly made from stems — and, in the case of the aorist, from stems having a variety of form comparable with that of present-stems.

600. Practically, the present-system is the most prominent and important part of the whole conjugation, since. from the earliest period of the language, its forms are very much more frequent than those of all the other systems together.

Thus, in the Veda, the occurrences of personal forms of this system are to those of all others about as three to one; in the Aitareya Brähmana, as five to one; in the Hitopadeça, as six to one; in the Çakuntalā, as eight to one; in Manu, as thirty to one.

601. And, as there is also great variety in the manner in which different roots form their present-stem, this, as being their most conspicuous difference, is made the basis of their principal classification; and a verb is said to be of this or of that conjugation, or class, according to the way in which its present-stem is made. IX. PRESENT-SYSTEM.

602. In a small minority of verbs, the present-stem is identical with the root. Then there are besides (excluding the passive and causative) eight more or less different ways of forming a present-stem from the root, each way being followed by a larger or smaller number of verbs. These are the "classes" or "conjugation-classes", as laid down by the native Hindu grammarians. They are arranged by the latter in a certain wholly artificial and unsystematic order (the ground of which has never been pointed out); and they are wont to be designated in European works according to this order, or else, after Hindu example, by the root standing at the head of each class in the Hindu lists. A different arrangement and nomenclature will be followed here, namely as below — the classes being divided (as is usual in European grammars) into two more general classes or conjugations, distinguished from one another by wider differences than those which separate the special classes.

603. The classes of the FIRST CONJUGATION are as follows:

I. The root-class (second class, or ad-class, of the Hindu grammarians); its present-stem is coincident with the root itself: thus, $\exists z ad$, 'eat'; z i, 'go'; $\exists T y\bar{a}$, 'go'; $\exists z dois$, 'hate'; $\exists z duh$, 'milk'.

II. The reduplicating class (third or huclass); the root is reduplicated to form the present-stem: thus, $\exists \exists juhu$ from $\gamma \exists hu$, 'sacrifice'; $\exists \forall lada$ from $\gamma \forall \forall$, 'give'; $\exists \forall j \ bibhr$ from $\gamma \forall$, 'bear'.

IV. a. The nu-class (fifth or su-class); the syl-

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lable $\underline{\neg}$ nu is added to the root: thus, $\underline{H}\underline{\neg}$ sunu from $\gamma \underline{H}\underline{\neg}$; $\underline{\exists} \underline{\mu} \underline{a} \underline{p} \underline{nu}$ from $\gamma \underline{\exists} \underline{\mu} \underline{a} \underline{p}$.

b. A very small number (only half-a-dozen) of roots ending already in $\neg n$, and also one very common and quite irregularly inflected root not so ending ($\neg n$ kr, 'make'), add $\exists u$ alone to form the present-stem. This is the eighth or *tan*-class of the Hindu grammarians; it may be best ranked by us as a sub-class, the *u*-class: thus, $\neg \neg tanu$ from $\gamma \neg \neg tan$.

V. The nā-class (ninth or krī-class); the syllable ना nā (or, in weak forms, नी nī) is added to the root: thus, क्रोपा। krīņā (or क्रोपा) krīņī) from vक्री krī, 'buy'; स्तभा stabhnā (or स्तभी stabhnī) from vस्तभ् stabh, 'establish'.

604. These classes have in common, as their most fundamental characteristic, a shift of accent: the tone being now upon the ending, and now upon the root or the classsign. Along with this goes a variation in the stem itself, which has a stronger or fuller form when the accent rests upon it, and a weaker or briefer form when the accent is on the ending: these forms are to be distinguished as the strong stem and the weak stem respectively (in part, both have been given above). The classes also form their optative active, their 2d sing. imperative, and their 3d pl. middle, in a different manner from the others.

605. In the classes of the SECOND CONJUGATION, the present-stem ends in *a*, and the accent has a fixed place, remaining always upon the same syllable of the stem, and never shifted to the endings. Also, the optative, the 2d sing. impv., and the 3d pl. middle are (as just stated) unlike those of the other conjugation.

606. The classes of this conjugation are as follows:

VI. The *a*-class, or unaccented *a*-class (first Whitney, Grammar. 14

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or $bh\bar{u}$ -class': the added class-sign is a simply; and the root, which has the accent, is strengthened by guna throughout: thus. भव bháva from $\gamma \underbrace{\gamma}_{i} bh\bar{u}$, 'be'; नय náya from γ नी $n\bar{n}$, 'lead'; बोध bódha from $\gamma \underbrace{\neg}_{i} \underbrace{budh}_{i}$, 'wake'; बर्ग váda from $\gamma \exists z vad$, 'speak'.

VII. The \dot{a} -class, or accented a-class (sixth or tud-class): the added class-sign is a, as in the preceding class; but it has the accent, and the unaccented root remains unstrengthened: thus, तुद् tudá from $\sqrt{2}$, 'thrust'; स्व srjä from $\sqrt{2}$, 'thrust'; स्व srjä from $\sqrt{2}$, 'et loose'; सुव suvá from $\sqrt{2}$, 'give birth'.

VIII. The ya-class (fourth or div-class); ya is added to the root. which has the accent: thus, दीव्य divya from γ दिव् div (more properly दीव् div: see 765); नक्म náhya from γ नक् nah, 'bind': क्रुध्य krúdhya from γ क्रुध् krudh, 'be angry'.

IX. The passive conjugation is also properly a present-system only, having a class-sign which is not extended into the other systems; though it differs markodly from the remaining classes in having a specific meaning, and in being formable in the middle voice (only) from all transitive verbs. Its inflection may therefore best be treated next to that of the ya-class, with which it is most nearly connected, differing from it as the á-class from the a-class. It forms its stem, namely, by adding an accented yá to the root: thus, **AU** adyá from γ **AU** add; **FU** rudhyá from γ **AU** additive the form γ **AU** additive the form γ **AU** additive the form γ **AU** additive the treated form γ **AU** additive the treated form γ **AU** additive the treated t

607. The Hindu grammarians reckon a tenth class or curclama, having a class-sign *áya* added to a strengthened root (thus, swedges from **]** cur', and an inflection like that of the other *a*atoma. Since, however, this stem is not limited to the presentmystem, but extends also into the rest of the conjugation while it also has to a great extent a causative value, and may be formed in that value from a large number of roots — it will be best treated along with the derivative conjugations (chap. XIV.).

608. A small number of roots add in the present-system a ch, or substitute a ch for their final consonant, and form a stem ending in cha or cha, which is then inflected like an astem. This is historically, doubtless, a true class-sign, analogous with the rest; but the verbs showing it are so few, and in formation partly so irregular, that they are not well to be put together into a class, but may best be treated as special cases falling under the other classes.

Roots adding ch are r and yu, which make the stems rchá and yúcha.

Roots substituting ch for their final are is, us (or vas 'shine'), gam, yam, which make the stems ichá, uchá, gácha, yácha.

Of so-called roots ending in ch, several are more or less clearly stems, whose use has been extended from the present to other systems of tenses.

609. Roots are not wholly limited, even in the later language, to one mode of formation of their present-stem, but are sometimes reckoned as belonging to two or more different conjugation-classes. And such variety of formation is especially frequent in the Veda, being exhibited by a considerable proportion of the roots there occurring; already in the Brāhmanas, however, a condition is reached nearly agreeing in this respect with the classical language. The different present-formations sometimes have differences of meaning; yet not more important ones than are often found belonging to the same formation, nor of a kind to show a difference of value as originally belonging to the separate classes of presents. If anything of this kind is to be established, it must be from the derivative conjugations, which are separated by no fixed line from the present-systems.

610. We take up now the different classes, in the order in which they have been arranged above, to describe more in detail, and with illustration, the formation of their presentsystems, and to notice the irregularities belonging under each class.

I. Root-class (second, ad-class).

611. In this class there is no class-sign; the root itself is also present-stem, and to it are added directly the personal endings — but combined in subjunctive and optative with the respective mode-signs, and in the imperfect taking the augment prefixed to the root.

The accented endings (552) regularly take the accent — except in the imperfect, where it falls on the augment — and before

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them the root remains unchanged; before the unaccented endings, the root takes the guaga-strengthening.

It is only in the first three classes that the endings come immediately in contact with a final consonant of the root, and that the rules for consonant combination have to be noted and applied.

1. Present Indicative.

612. The endings are the primary (with \overline{an} *áte* in 3d pl. mid.), added to the bare root. The root takes the accent, and has *guna*, if capable of it, in the three persons sing. act.

Examples of inflection: a. root ξ *i*, 'go': strong form of root-stem, ∇ *i*; weak form, ξ *i*.

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		active.			middle.*		
	5.	đ.	<b>p</b> .	8.	a.	<b>p</b> .	
1	रमि	इवम्	इमस्	इये	इवर्क्	इमक्	
	<del>ó</del> mi	irás	imás	iyó	irahe	imáhe	
2	<b>एषि</b>	रुवम्	रुघ	इषे	इयाचे	रुघे	
	ési	ithás	ithá	ișé	iyäthe	idhvé	
3	रति	इतम्	यत्ति	इते	इयाते	इयते	
	éti	tás	yánti	ité	iyäte	iyáte	

b. root दिष् dviş, 'hate'; strong stem-form, देष् dviş; weak, दिष् dviş.

For rules of combination for the final s, see 226.

1	द्वेष्मि	दिष्ठम्	हिष्मस्	द्विषे	दिष्ठके	हिष्मके
	dvéşmi	dvisvás	dvișm ds	dvișé	dvi <b>sváhe</b>	dvişmáhe
2	हेति	<u> दि</u> छम्	ৱিস্ত	दिते	हिषावे	हिर्हे
	dvékși	dvisthas	dvișț há	dvikșé	dvișắthe	dviddhvé
3	हेष्टि	हिष्टम्	द्विषत्ति	हिष्टे	हिषाले	द्विषते
	dvėsti	dvistás	dvișánti	dvisté	dvișäte	dvișáte

o. root उन् duh, 'milk': strong stem-form दोन् doh; weak,

For rules of combination for the final h, and for the conversion of the initial to dh, see 222, 155, 160.

1	दोक्सि	<u>ड</u> द्धम्	डुव्सम्	डुके	डुव्हरे	डुस्रके
	dóhmi	duhvás	duhmás	duhé	duhváhe	duhmáhe

^{*} Used in the middle with the preposition *adks*, to signify 'go over for one's self', 1. e. 'repeat, learn, vead'.

दुक् duh.

2		दुर्रधस् dugdhás		दुक्ताघे duháthe	पुर्ग्ध dhugdheé
8	•	डुग्धस् dugdhás	दुरुत्ति duhánti		डक्ते duháte

**613.** Examples of the 3d sing. mid. coincident in form with the 1st sing. are not rare in the older language (both V. and Br.): the most frequent examples are ice, duhe, vide, cdye: more sporadic are cite, bruve, huve. The irregular accent of the 3d pl. mid. is found in RV. in *rihate*, duhate. Examples of the same person in *re* and *rate* also occur: thus (besides those mentioned below, **629**—**30**, **635**), vidre, and, with auxiliary vowel, *arhire* (unless these are to be ranked, rather, as perfect forms without reduplication: **790** b).

#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

**614.** Subjunctive forms of this class are not uncommon in the older language, and nearly all those which the formation anywhere admits are quotable, from Veda or from Brāhmana. A complete paradigm, accordingly, is given below, with the few forms not actually quotable for this class enclosed in brackets. We may take as models, for the active the root i, 'go', and for the middle the root  $\bar{as}$ , 'sit', of both of which numerous forms are met with (although neither for these nor for any others can the whole series be found in actual use).

The mode-stems are  $\dot{a}ya$  ( $\dot{e}+a$ ) and  $\dot{a}sa$  respectively.

		active. d.	_	_	middle. d.	_
	B.	α.	<b>P</b> .			p.
1	∫áyāni \áyū	<b>áy</b> āva	âyāma	<b>å</b> 8āi	∫ásāvahāi \[dsāvahe]	{ásāmahāi {ásāmahe]
2	∫âyasi ∖âyas	áyathas	áyatha	{ásase ∖ásāsāi	[ásāithe]	{[ásadhve] \ <b>ás</b> ādhvāi
3	∫ <b>â</b> yati ∖áyat	âyatas	<b>á</b> ya <b>n</b>	{ <b>åsate</b> {åsātāi	<b>ás</b> āite	{[ásante]-nta dsāntāi

**615.** The RV. has no middle forms in  $\bar{a}i$  except those of the first person. The 1st sing. act. in  $\bar{a}$  occurs only in RV., in  $ay\bar{a}$ ,  $brav\bar{a}$ ,  $ståv\bar{a}$ . The 2d and 3d sing. act. with primary endings are very unusual in the Brāhmanas. Forms irregularly made with long  $\bar{a}$ , like those from presentstems in a, are not rare in AV. and Br.: thus,  $ay\bar{a}s$ ,  $ay\bar{a}t$ ,  $dy\bar{a}r$ ;  $ds\bar{a}t$ ,  $brdv\bar{a}t$ ;  $as\bar{a}tha$ ,  $brav\bar{a}tha$ ,  $ham\bar{a}tha$ ;  $dd\bar{a}m$ ,  $doh\bar{a}n$ . Of middle forms with secondary endings are found hámanta, 3d pl., and  $\bar{i}cata$ , 3d sing. (after má prohibitive), which is an isolated example. The only dual person in  $\bar{a}ite$  is  $brdv\bar{a}ite$ .

# 8. Present Optative.

**616.** The personal endings combined with the modetigns of this mode (27)  $y\bar{a}$  in act.,  $\xi \bar{i}$  in mid.) have been

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IX. PRESENT-SYSTEM.

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given in full above 566. The stem-form is the unaccented and unstrengthened root. The whole formation is so regular that a single example of inflection will be enough.

		active.			mi <b>ddle</b> .	
1	ा	د	^{p.}	•.	ı.	_P .
	हिऱ्याम्	हिप्याव	हिप्याम	हिपीय	द्विपीवसि	दिषीमस्टि
	dcisyám	driyáta	dvisyáma	वत्यंग्रॅंग्रव	drişiedhi	dci:imdhi
1	हिष्याम्	हिप्यातम्	हिष्यात	हिषीयाम्	हिषीयावाम्	दिषोधम्
	drisytu	dvigyátam	drisyåta	dvisithás	dcisiyathām	doisidhodm
3	हिष्यात्	हिष्याताम्	हिप्युम्	हिषीत	दिषीयाताम्	दिषीरन्
	dvisyat	^{dvi} iyatām	drigyis	dcișită	dvișiyátām	doisirán

So likewise, from  $\gamma i$ , iydm and iyiyd; from  $\gamma$  dub, dubydm and dubiyd; and so on.

The BV. has once tana in 2d pl. act. (in syātana).

## 4. Present Imperative.

617. The imperative adds, in second and third persons, its own endings (with  $\overline{ann}$  at  $\overline{ann}$  in 3d pl. mid.) directly to the root-stem. The stem is accented and strengthened in 3d sing. act.; elsewhere, the accent is on the ending and the root remains unchanged. The first persons, so called, of the later language are from the old subjunctive, and have its strengthened stem and accent; they are repeated here from where they were given above (614). In the 2d sing. act., the ending is regularly (as in the two following classes) for *dhi* if the root end with a consonant, and for *hi* if it end with a vowel. As examples we take some of the roots already used for the purpose.

		active.			middle.	
1	ा. म्रयानि ^{áyāni}	_{d.} म्रयाच áyāva	_P . म्रयाम áyāma	ग्रासे दंधवां	ा. म्रासावरै ásāvahāi	^{p.} म्रासामके tsāmahāi
2	হহি	इतम्	इत	म्रास्स्व	म्रासाचाम्	द्याडूम्
	টা	itám	स्व	ā:#04	āsāthām	āddhvám
8	रत	इताम्	यत्तु	चास्ताम्	म्रासाताम्	म्रासताम्
	étu	itam	yántu	āstām	<i>āsātām</i>	āsátām

# I. ROOT-CLASS (SECOND, ad-CLASS).

1	दोक्तानि	दोक्ताव	दोक्ताम	दोई	दोक्तावके	दाकामकै
	dóhāni	dóhāva	dóhāma	dóhāi	dóhāvahāi	dóhāmahāi
2	उमिप	डुरधम्	ड्राध	पुत्व	उक्तायाम्	धुरधम्
	dugdhi	dugdhám	dugdhá	dhukşvá	duhatham	dhugdhvám
3		ड्राधाम् dugdhám	उरुमु duhántu		उक्ताताम् duhatam	

**618.** The 2d sing, act. ending tat is found in the older language in a few verbs of this class: namely, vittat, vittat, brutat. In 3d sing, mid., two or three verbs have in the older language the ending am: thus, duham (only RV. case), vidam, cayam; and in 3d pl. mid. AV. has duhram and duhratam. The use of tana for ta in 2d pl. act. is quite frequent in the Veda: thus, itana, yatana, hantana, etc. And in stota, étana, sotana, we have examples in the same person of a strong (and accented) stem.

#### 5. Present Participle.

619. The active participle has the ending यत् *int* (weak stem-form यत् *at*) added to the unstrengthened root. Mechanically, it may be formed from the 3d pl. by dropping the final  $\xi$  *i*. Thus, for the verbs inflected above, the active participles are यत् y*ánt*, दुरुत् *duhánt*, दिपत् *dvisánt*. The feminine stem ends usually in यती *ati*: thus, यती y*ati*, दुरुती *duhati*, दिपती *dvisati*: but, from roots in  $\bar{a}$ , in यात्ति *ant* or याती  $\bar{a}ti$  (449).

The middle participle has the ending স্থান aná, added to the unstrengthened root: thus, ইয়ান iyāná, হুকুনে duhāná, হিমাযা dviṣāná.

But a number of these participles in the older language have a double accent, either on the ending or on the radical syllable: thus, duhāná and dúhāna (also dúghāna), vidāná and vídāna, suvāná and súvāna, stuvāná and stávāna — the last having also a stronger form of the root when accented. The root ās, 'sit', forms the unique āsīna (along with, in the Veda, āsāná).

#### 6. Imperfect.

620. This tense adds the secondary endings to the root as increased by prefixion of the augment. The root has the *guna*-strengthening (if capable of it) in the three persons of

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the singular, although the accent is always upon the augment. Examples of inflection are:

			active.			middle.	
	1	ा. म्रायम् áyan		रेम बima	^{s.} म्रासि ási	_{ब.} म्रास्वरि ásvahi	^{p.} म्रास्मकि ásmahi
	2	ऐम् बंध	ऐतम् āltam	ऐत ālta	म्रास्यास् कंsthās	म्रासाधाम् ásāthām	म्राह्मम् tddhvam
	8	ऐत् बार	ऐताम् ^{āltām}	म्रायन् ayan	म्रास्त र्वडरव	श्वासाताम् asātām	म्रासत ásata
ar	ıd,	from	the root	दुक् duh :			•
1	म्बदे ४४४	ोक्म् oham	म्रहु दू áduhva	घडुक् áduhma	দ্ব <b>হ্ৰ</b> কি áduhi	म्रहु क्रूकि áduhvahi	म्रहुक्ति áduhmahi
2		गेक् ‱	म्रहुरधम् ádugdham	म्रहुरघ ádugdha	म्रहुरधास् ádugdhās		म्रधुरधम् ádhugdhvam
3		ोक् ‰k	म्रहुरधाम् ^{6dugdhām}	म्रहुरून् áduhan	म्रहुरघ ádugdha	म्रहुक्ताम् áduhātām	ষব্রকুন áduhata

**621.** Roots ending in  $\bar{a}$  may in the later language optionally take us instead of an in 3d pl. act. (the  $\bar{a}$  being lost before it); and in the older they always do so: thus, *dyus* from  $Vy\bar{a}$ , dpus from  $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$  'protect'. The same ending is also allowed and met with in the case of a few roots ending in consonants: namely rid, 'know', caks, dvis, duh, mrj.

The ending tana, 2d pl. act., is found in the Veda in áyātana, ásastana, āl**ian**a.

To save the characteristic endings in 2d and 3d sing. act., the root ad inserts a: thus, ádas, ádat; the root as inserts i: thus, ásis, ásit (see below, 636.

622. The use of the persons of this tense. without augment, in the older language, either in the same sense as with augment, or as subjunctives, has been noticed above (587). Augmentless imperfects of this class are rather uncommon in the Veda: thus, han, ves, 2d sing.; han, vet, stant, dán (?), 3d sing.; bruvan, duhús, caksus, 3d pl.; vasta, sūta, 3d sing. mid.

623. The first or root-form of aorist is identical in its formation with this imperfect: see below. 829 ff.

624. In the Veda (but almost limited to RV.) are found certain second persons singular, made by adding the ending si to the (accented and strengthened) root, and having an imperative value. There is some difference of view as to their formal character * acceptable opinion regards uperatively. They them as isolated inits

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are: kşéşi (1 kşi 'rule'), jéşi, jóşi (for jóşşi, from  $\gamma$ juş), dårşi, dhakşi, nakşi (2 naç 'attain'), néşi, párşi (2 pr 'set across'), prási, bhakşi, mátsi, müsi (2 mü 'measure'), yákşi, yánsi, yösi, yótsi, rátsi, rási, vákşi, véşi (1 vī 'strive after'), çróşi, sakşi, sátsi, hoşi.

#### Irregularities of the Root-class.

625. It is impossible (at least at present) to determine with accuracy how many of the actually used roots of the language are inflected in the present-system according to this class, or according to any of the other classes, because the older language especially, and the later in less degree, has sporadic forms which are either of doubtful classification or too isolated to determine the character of the root to which they belong. The root-class may be said, however, to include from seventy to ninety roots. A considerable number of them present irregularities of inflection, a brief account of which (not claiming exhaustive completeness) is given in the following paragraphs.

**626.** The roots of the class ending in u have in their strong forms the *vrddhi* instead of the *guna*-strengthening before an ending beginning with a consonant: thus, from V stu, stāúmi, *dstāut*, and the like: but *ástavam*, stávāni, etc.

Roots found to exhibit this peculiarity in actual use are kenu, yu, sku, stu, snu (these five in the earlier language), nu, ru, su 'impel', and hnu.

627. The root mrj also has the vrddhi-vowel in its strong forms: thus, mårjmi, ámārjam, ámārț; and the same streng-thening is allowed in weak forms before endings beginning with a vowel: thus, mārjantu, amārjan: but this is not found to occur in the older language.

In the other tense-systems, also, and in derivation, my shows often the vyddhi instead of the guna-strengthening.

**628.** A number of roots accent the radical syllable throughout, both in strong and in weak forms: thus, all those beginning with a long vowel,  $\bar{as}$ .  $\bar{id}$ ,  $\bar{ir}$ ,  $\bar{ic}$ ; and also cake, take, trā, niñs, vas 'clothe',  $ci\bar{nj}$ ,  $c\bar{i}$ , and sū 'generate'. All these, except take and trā (and trā in the only Vedic forms), are ordinarily conjugated in middle voice only. Forms with the same irregular accent occur now and then in the Veda from other verbs: thus, mátsva, rdhat. Middle participles so accented have been noticed above (619).

**629.** Of the roots mentioned in the last paragraph,  $c\bar{i}$  has the *guna*-strengthening throughout: thus,  $c\dot{a}ye$ ,  $c\dot{e}se$ ,  $c\dot{a}y\bar{i}ya$ ,  $c\dot{a}y\bar{i}yaa$ , and so on. Other irregularities in its inflection (in part already noticed) are the 3d pl. persons  $c\dot{e}rase$  (AV. etc. have also *çére*), *çératām*, *áçerata* (RV. has also *áçeran*), the 3d sing. pres. *çáye* (R.) and impv. *çáyām*. The isolated active form *áçayat* is common in the older language.

**630.** Of the same roots, id and ic insert a union-vowel *i* before endings beginning with *s*, *sv*, *th*: thus, *icise*, *icidhve*, *idisva* (these three being the only forms noted in the older language); but RV. has *ikse* beside *icise*. The 3d pl. *icire* (on account of its accent) is also apparently present rather than perfect.

• 631. The roots *rud* (not in Veda), *svap*, *an*, and *çvas* insert a union-vowel *i* before all the endings beginning with a consonant, except the *s* and *t* of 2d and 3d sing. impf., where they insert instead either *a* or  $\bar{\imath}$ : thus, *svápimi*, *çvási*, *ániti*, and *ánat* or *ánīt*. And in the remaining forms, the last three are allowed to accent either root or ending: thus, *svápantu* and *çvásantu* (AV.), or *svapántu* etc.

In the older language,  $\gamma$  van makes the same insertions: thus, vaniti, avamīt; and other cases occasionally occur: thus, janisva, vasisva ( $\gamma$  vas 'aim'), *cnathihi, stanihi* (all RV.). On the other hand, an sometimes makes forms from an *a*-stem: thus, *ánati* (AV.); pple *ánant* (CB.); opt. anet (AB.).

632. The root brū (of very frequent use) takes the unionvowel i after the root when strengthened, before the initial vowel of an ending: thus, brávīmi, brávīṣi, brávīṣi, ábravīs, ábravīt; but brūmás, brūyām, ábravam, ábruvan, etc. Special occasional irregularities are brūmi, bravīhi, abruvam, abrūvan, bruyūt, and sporadic forms from an a-stem. The subj. dual brávāite has been noticed above (615).

**633.** Some of the roots in u are allowed to be inflected like  $br\bar{u}$ : namely, ku, tu, ru, and stu; and an occasional instance is met with of a form so made (in V., only  $tav\bar{v}ti$  noted).

**634.** The root am (hardly found in the later language) takes  $\overline{i}$  as unionvowel: thus, amisi (RV.), amisti and  $\overline{a}m\overline{i}t$  and amisva (TS). From  $\gamma$  can occur camisva (VS.: TS. camisva) and camidhvam (TB. etc.).

**635.** The irregularities of  $\gamma'$  duh in the older language have been already in part noted: the 3d pl. indic. mid. duhaté, duhré, and duhráte; 3d sing. impv. duhám, pl. duhrám and duhratām; impf. act. 3d sing. áduhat (which is found also in the later language), 3d pl. aduhran (beside áduhan and duhás); the mid. pple dúghāna; and (quite unexampled elsewhere) the opt. forms duhīyát and duhīyán (RV. only).

Some of the roots of this class are abbreviated or otherwise weakened in their weak forms: thus —

686. The root ERR as, 'be', loses its vowel in weak forms (except where protected by combination with the augment).

Its 2d sing. indic. is  $\overline{aft}$  *ási* (instead of *assi*); its 2d sing. impv. is  $\overline{aft}$  *edhi* (irregularly from *asdhi*). The insertion of  $\overline{\xi}$   $\overline{i}$  in 2d and 3d sing. impf. has been noticed already above.

The forms of this extremely common verb are, then. as follows:

		Indicative.		•	Optative.	
1	*. श्वस्मि _{ásmi}	व. स्वस् svás	^{p.} स्मस् smás	₹याम् syám	_{d.} स्याव syáva	^{p.} स्याम syáma
2	म्रमि	स्थम्	स्थ	स्यास्	स्यातम्	स्यात
	_{ási}	sthás	sthá	syás	syátam	syáta
3	म्रस्ति	स्तम्	मत्ति	स्यात्	स्याताम्	स्युम्
	_{ásti}	stás	sánti	syát	syátām	syús
	Iı	nperative.			Imperfect.	
1	म्रमानि	म्रसाव	म्रसाम	म्रासम्	म्रास्व	म्रास्म
	_{ásāni}	ásāva	ásāma	ásam	asva	वंडणव
2	रुधि	स्तम्	ेस्त	म्रासीस्	म्रास्तम्	म्रास्त
	edhi	stám	stá	_{वंडांड}	åstam	åsta
3	म्रस्तु	स्ताम्	मत्तु	म्रामीत्	म्रास्ताम्	म्रासन्
	ástu	ståm	sántu	asīt	वंstām	ásan
					<b>•</b> •	

Participle सत्त sant (fem. सती sati).

The Vedic subjunctive forms are the usual ones, made upon the stem *ása*. They are in frequent use, and appear (*asat* especially) even in late Brāhmanas where the subjunctive is almost lost. The resolution *sidm* etc. (opt.) is common in Vedic verse. In 2d and 3d sing. impf. is a few times met with the more normal  $\bar{a}s$  (for  $\bar{a}s-s$ ,  $\bar{a}s-t$ ).

Middle forms from  $\gamma$  as are also given by the grammarians as allowed with certain prepositions (vi + ati), but they do not appear to have been met with in use. A middle present indicative is compounded (in 1st and 2d persons) with the nomen agentis in tr (tar) to form the periphrastic future in the middle voice (see below, **942** ff.). The 1st sing. indic. is he; the rest is in the usual relation of middle to active forms (in 2d pers., se, dhve, sva, dhvam, with total loss of the root itself).

The only other tense of this verb in use is the perfect, which is entirely regular in its inflection.

637. The root han, 'strike, slay', is treated somewhat after the manner of noun-stems in an in declension (421): in weak

forms, it loses its *n* before an initial consonant (except *m* and *v*) of an ending, and its *a* before an initial vowel — and in the latter case its  $\lambda$ , in contact with the *n*, is changed to  $g\lambda$  (compare 402). Thus, for example:

	Pr	esent Indica	tive.	Imperfect.			
	<b>s</b> .	d.	<b>p</b> .	<b>8</b> .	d.	p.	
1	<b>hán</b> mi	hanvás	hanmás	åhanam	áha <b>n</b> va	<b>áh</b> a <b>n</b> ma	
2	hánsi	hathús	hathá	áha <b>n</b>	áhatam	áhata	
8	hánti	hatás	. gh <b>n</b> ánti	áha <b>n</b>	áhatām	ághnan	

Its participle is *ghnánt* (fem. *ghnát*). Its 2d sing. impv. is *jak* (by anomalous dissimilation, on the model of reduplicating forms).

Middle forms from this root are frequent in the Brāhmanas, and those that occur are formed according to the same rules: thus, hate, hanmahe, ghnate; ahata, aghnātām, aghnata (in AB., also ahata); ghnāta (but also hanīta).

638. The root vaç, 'wish', is in the weak forms regularly and usually contracted to uç (as in the perfect: see chap. X.): thus, uçmási (V.: once apparently abbreviated in RV. to *çmasi*), uçáná; pple uçánt, u caná. Middle forms (except the pple) do not occur; nor do the weak forms of the imperfect, which are given as  $\bar{a}uqva$ ,  $\bar{a}ustam$ , etc.

RV, has in like manner the participle usand from the root vas 'clothe'.

639. The root  $c\bar{as}$ , 'command', shows some of the peculiarities of a reduplicated verb, lacking (646) the *n* before *t* in all 3d perss. pl. and in the active participle. A part of its active forms — namely, the weak forms having endings beginning with consonants (including the optative) — come from a stem with weakened vowel, cis (as do the aorist, 854, and some of the derivatives). Thus, for example:

	Present Indicative.			Imperfect.			
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	p.	
1	çtəmi	çisvās	çişm/is	áçāsam	áçisva	áçişma	
1	çássi	çişthás	çişthá	. áçūs	áçistam	áçista	
8	çåsti	çiştás	çásati	áçūt	áçiştām	<b>áç</b> ā <b>sus</b>	

In 2d sing. impf.,  $ac\bar{a}t$  is said to be also allowed. If it is actually so used, the *t* must be the sporadic conversion of final radical *s* to *t* (167); and then it would be open to question whether the *t* of 3d sing. is radical or of the ending (according to 555). The optative is *cisydm* etc. The 2d sing. impv. is  $c\bar{a}dht$  (with total loss of the *s*); and RV. has the strong 2d pl. *cāstâna* (with anomalous accent). But no *cis*-forms of the presentsystem occur in the Veda.

The middle inflection is regular, and the accent (apparently) always upon the radical syllable (pple  $c\dot{a}s\bar{a}na$ , RV. etc.).

The root  $d\bar{a}\rho$ , 'worship', has in like manner (RV.) the pple  $d\bar{a}\rho at$  (not  $d\bar{a}\rho at$ ).

**640.** The double so-called root *jaky*, 'eat, laugh', is an evident reduplication of *ghas* and *has*. It has the absence of *n* in act. 3d perss. pl. and pple, and the accent on the root before vowel-endings, which belong to reduplicated verbs; and it also takes the union-vowel *i* in the manner of *rud* etc. (above, **631**). A 2d pers. impv. *jagdhi* from it occurs.

**641.** Other obviously reduplicated verbs are treated by the native grammarians as if simple, and referred to this conjugation: such are the intensively reduplicated  $j\bar{a}gr$ , daridrā, and vevī (chap. XIV.), dīdhī etc. (676), and cakās (677).

# II. Reduplicating Class (third, hu-class).

642. This class forms its present-stem by prefixing a reduplication to the root.

643. a. As regards the consonant of the reduplication, the general rules which have already been given above (590) are followed.

b. A long vowel is shortened in the reduplicating syllable: thus,  $\xi \xi I \, dad\bar{a} \, \text{from } \gamma \xi I \, d\bar{a}$ ;  $\Xi \Lambda^{i} \, bibh\bar{i} \, \text{from } \gamma \Lambda^{i} \, bh\bar{i}$ ;  $\overline{\eta} \xi \, juh\bar{u} \, \text{from } \gamma \xi \, h\bar{u}$ . The vowel  $\Re \, r$  never appears in the reduplication, but is replaced by  $\xi \, i$ : thus,  $\Xi \Lambda^{i} \, bibhr$  from  $\gamma \Lambda^{i} \, bhr$ ;  $\overline{\Pi} \, q \, piprc$  from  $\gamma \, q \, prc$ .

For verbs in which a and  $\bar{a}$  also are irregularly represented in the reduplication by i, see below, **660**.

c. The only root of this class with initial vowel is r (or ar); it takes as reduplication i, which is held apart from the root by an interposed y: thus, *iyar* and *iyr* (the latter has not been found in actual use).

644. The present-stem of this class (as of the other classes belonging to the first conjugation) has a double form: a stronger form, with gunated root-vowel; and a weaker form, without guna: thus, from  $\sqrt{3}$ , hu, the two forms are  $\sqrt{3}\sqrt{2}$ , iuho and  $\sqrt{3}\sqrt{3}$ , juhu; from  $\sqrt{3}\sqrt{3}$ , hu, the two forms are  $\sqrt{3}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1}$  bhi. And the rule for their use is the same as in the other classes of this conjugation: the strong stem is found before the unaccented endings (552), and the weak the before the accented.

645. According to all the analogies of the first general conjugation, we should expect to find the accent upon the rootsyllable when this is strengthened. That is actually the case, however, only in a small minority of the roots composing the class: namely, in hu, bhi (no test-forms in the older language', hri (not found in the older language), mad and dhan (both very rare), jan (no forms of this class found to occur), ci 'notice' (in V.), yu 'separate' (in older language only), and in bhr in the later language (in V. it goes with the majority: but RV. has bibharti once; and this, the later accentuation, is found also in the Brāhmanas). In all the rest — apparently, by a recent transfer — it rests upon the reduplicating instead of upon the radical syllable. And in both classes alike, the accent is anomalously thrown back upon the reduplication in those weak forms of which the ending begins with a vowel; while in the other weak forms it is upon the ending.

Apparently (the cases with written accent are too few to determine the point satisfactorily) the middle optative endings, iya etc. (568), are reckoned throughout as endings with initial vowel, and throw back the accent upon the reduplication.

646. The verbs of this class lose the  $\neg n$  in the 3d pl. endings in active as well as middle, and in the imperfect have  $\exists \neg us$  instead of  $\forall \neg \neg an$  — and before this a final radical vowel has guna.

#### 1. Present Indicative.

647. The combination of stem and endings is as in the preceding class.

Examples of inflection: a.  $\gamma$  ক্ত hu, 'sacrifice': strong stem-form, র্হ্ন juho; weak form, র্দ্ত juhu (or júhu).

		active.	-		middle.	
	⁸ .	d.	<b>p</b> .	B.	d	p
1	जुक्तीमि	<u>जु</u> कुवस्	<u> </u>	जुद्धे	<u>जु</u> कुवर्रु	<u> जु</u> कुमके
	juhómi	juhurás	juhumás	jühve	juhuráhe	juhumáhe
2	जुकोषि	<u> </u>	नुङ्ख्य	नुकुषे	नुद्धाये	नुकुघे
-	juhosi	juhuthás	juhuthá		júhrāthe	juhudhvé
	जुकोति	•	র্ন্ধনি	जुकुते	नुस्ताते	जुद्धते
3	<u> </u>	<u>जु</u> कुतम्	<u> </u>			
	juhóti	juhutás	júhvati	juhuté	júhvāte	júhvate
					<b></b>	

b. Root મ bhr, 'bear' (given with Vedic accentuation): strong stem-form, লিম্ bibhar: weak, লিম্ bibhr (or bibhr).

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#### II. REDUPLICATING CLASS (THIRD, hu-CLASS).

1	बिभर्मि	बिभ्वस्	विभूमस्	विधे	बिभूबर्दे	बिभूमके
	bibharmi	bibhrvás	bibhrmás	bibhre	bibhrváhe	bibhrmáhe
2	विभर्षि	विभ्यम्	विभ्य	विभूषे	विश्वार्ये	बिभूधे
	bibharşi	bibhythás	bibhythá	bibhrsé	bibhrāthe	bibhrdhvé
3	विभर्ति	विभृतम्	विधति	विभूत	विश्वाते	विश्वते
	bibharti	bibhrtás	bibhrati	bibhrté	bibhrāte	bibhrate

The u of hu (like that of the class-signs nu and u: see below, 697) is said to be omissible before v and m of the endings of 1st du. and pl.: thus, juhvás, juhváse, etc.

#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

648. It is not possible (at least, at present) to draw a distinct line between those subjunctive forms of the older language which should be reckoned as belonging to the present-system and those which should be assigned to the perfect — even, in some cases, to the reduplicated aorist and intensive. Here will be noticed only those which most clearly belong to this class; the more doubtful cases will be treated under the perfect-system. Except in first persons (which continue in use as "imperatives" down to the later language), subjunctives from roots having unmistakably a reduplicated present-system are of far from frequent occurrence.

**649.** The subjunctive mode-stem is formed in the usual manner, with the mode-sign a and guna of the root-vowel, if this is capable of such strengthening. The evidence of the few accented forms met with indicates that the accent is laid in accordance with that of the strong indicative forms: thus, from  $\sqrt{hu}$ , the stem would be *juháva*; from  $\sqrt{bhr}$ , it would be *bibhara* (but *bibhára* later). Before the mode-sign, final radical  $\bar{a}$  would be, in accordance with analogies elsewhere, dropped: thus dáda from  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ , dádha from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$  (all the forms actually occurring would be derivable from secondary roots, as dad and dadh).

650. Instead of giving a theoretically complete scheme of inflection, it will be better to note all the examples quotable from the older language (accented when found so occurring).

Thus, of 1st persons, we have in the active juhávāni, bibharāņi, dadāni, dadhāni, jahāni; juhavāma, dádhāma, jáhāma; — in the middle, dadhāi, mimāi, dadhāvahāi; juhavāmahāi, dadāmahe, dadāmahāi, dadhāmahāi.

Of other persons, we have with primary endings in the active bibharāsi (with double mode-sign: 560, end), dádhathas, juhavātha (do.) and juhavatha; in the middle, dádhase; dádhate, rárate, dádhātāi, dadātāi: — with secondary endings, dádhas, víveşas, juhavat, bibharat, yuyávat, dádhat, dadhánat, babhasat; dadhan, yuyavan, juhavan.

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#### 3. Present Optative.

**651.** To form this mode, the optative endings given above (566), as made up of mode-sign and personal endings, are added to the unstrengthened stem. The accent is as already stated (645). The inflection is so regular that it is unnecessary to give here more than the first persons of a single verb: thus,

		active.			middle.	
	S.	d.	p.	8.	_d	p
1	बुकुयाम्	नुकुयाव	बुकुयाम	नुन्तीय	नुद्धविरि	बुद्धींम <b>रि</b>
	juhuyam	juhuyava	juhuyáma			júhoimahi
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

#### 4. Present Imperative.

652. The endings, and the mode of their combination with the root, have been already given. In 2d sing. act., the ending is  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$  hi after a vowel, but  $\overline{\mathfrak{U}}$  dhi after a consonant:  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$  hu, however, forms  $\overline{\mathfrak{sgs}}$   $\overline{\mathfrak{U}}$  juhudhi (apparently, in order to avoid the recurrence of  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$  h in two successive syllables): and other examples of  $\overline{\mathfrak{U}}$  dhi after a vowel are found in the Veda.

653. Example of inflection:

		active.			middle	
	<u>.</u>	d.	р.	8. 8	d.	^{p.}
1	बुक्वानि	<u> </u>	<u>जु</u> क्वाम	जुरुवि	<b>बुक्</b> वावर्के	बुक्वामके
	juhávāni	juhávāva	juhávāma	juhávāi	juhávāvahāi	juhávā <b>mahāi</b>
8	<u>जु</u> कुपि	<u> </u>	बुकुत	নুক্তম	जुद्धाधाम्	<b>जु</b> कुधम्
	juhudhi	juhutám	juhutá	juhuşvá	júhrāthām	juhudhvám
3	बुक्रीतु	<u> </u>	नुद्धतु	बकुताम्	बुद्धाताम्	नुद्धताम्
	juhótu	juhutam	júhvatu	juhutám	júhvātām	júhvatām

The other division of this class differ here, as in the indicative, in the accentuation of their strong forms only: namely, in all the first persons (borrowed subjunctives), and in the 3d sing. act.: thus (in the older language) bibharāņi etc., bibhartu, bibharāi etc.

654. Vedic irregularities of inflection are: a. the occasional use of strong forms in 2d persons: thus, yuyodhi, çiçādhi (beside çiçihf:; yuyotam (beside yuyutám); fyarta, dádāta, dádhāta and dádhātama (see below, 673), pipartana, juhóta and juhótana, yuyótana; b. the use of dhi instead of hi after a vowel (only in the two instances just quoted); c. the ending tana in 2d pl. act. (in the instances just quoted and in others, as mamáttana, jigātana, dhattana, etc.); d. the ending tāt in 2d sing. act., in dattāt, dhattāt, piprtāt.

## 5. Present Participle.

655. As elsewhere, the active participle-stem may be made mechanically from the 3d pl. indic. by dropping <u>इ</u> *i*: thus, जुद्धत् *júhvat*, विश्वत् *blbhrat*. In inflection, it has no distinction of strong and weak forms (444). The feminine stem ends in म्रती *atī*. The middle participles are regularly made: thus, जुद्धान *júhvāna*, विश्वापा *blbhrāṇa*.

## 6. Imperfect.

656. As 'already pointed out, the 3d pl. act. of this class takes the ending 3H us, and a final radical vowel has guna before it. The strong forms are, as in pres. indic., the three sing. act. persons.

**657**. Example of inflection:

		jactive.			middle.	
	<b>s.</b>	d.	р.	_*.	a	p.
1	म्रजुक्वम्	म्रज्ङव	म्रजुङम	ম্মনুদ্ধি	স্নন্জবাহ	म्रजुर्कुमकि
	ájuhavam	ájuhuva	ájuhuma	ájuhvi	ájuhuvahi	djuhumahi
2	म्रजुकोम्	म्रज्ङतम्	<del>ম</del> র্ক্তন	म्रजुङायास्	म्रजुद्धायाम्	म्रजुङ्गधम्
	ájuhos `	ájuhutam	ájuhuta	<b>ģ</b> juhuthās	ájuhvāthām	ájuh <b>u</b> dhvam
3	म्रजुकोत्	म्रनुकुताम्	म्रजुरुवुम्	<del>ম</del> র্ক্তন	म्रजुद्धाताम्	म्रजुक्त
Ű	ájuhot 🔪	djuhutām`	ájuhavus	ájuhuta	ájuhvātām	ájuhvata
						•

From  $\gamma$ म bhr, the 2d and 3d sing. act. are स्रविभर् ábibhar (for abibhar-s and abibhar-t) — and so in all other cases where the strong stem ends in a consonant. The 3d pl. act. is म्रविभरूम *abibharus*; and from  $\gamma$ भी bhī, it is म्रविभयुम् *abibharus*.

658. The usual Vedic irregularities in 2d pl. act. — strong forms, and the ending tana — occur in this tense also: thus, ádadāta, ádadhāta; ádattana, ájagantana, ájahātana. The RV. has also once apiprata for apiprita in 3d sing. mid., and abibhran for abibharus in 3d pl. act. Examples of augmentless forms are çiçās, vivés, jígāt; jíhīta, çíçīta, jihata.

Whitney, Grammar.

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#### Irregularities of the Reduplicating Class.

659. It is still more difficult to determine the precise limits of this class than of the root-class, because of the impossibility (referred to above, under subjunctive: 648) of always separating its forms from those of other reduplicating conjugations and parts of conjugations. In the RV., about forty roots may be confidently assigned to it; in the AV., less than thirty; many of them have irregularities (besides those in tense-inflection already pointed out).

**660.** Besides the roots in r or ar — namely, r, ghr (usually written ghar), tr, pr, bhr, sr, prc — the following roots having a or  $\bar{a}$  as radical vowel take i instead of a in the reduplicating syllable:  $g\bar{a}$  'go',  $3p\bar{a}$  'rise',  $m\bar{a}$  'measure',  $m\bar{a}$  'bellow',  $c\bar{c}\bar{a}$ ,  $h\bar{a}$  'remove' (mid.), vac, sac; vac has both i and a;  $r\bar{a}$  has i once in RV.: for stha,  $p\bar{a}$  'drink',  $ghr\bar{a}$ , han, see below (670—4).

661. Several roots of this class in final  $\bar{a}$  change the  $\bar{a}$  in weak forms to  $\bar{i}$  (occasionally even to i), and then drop it altogether before endings beginning with a vowel.

This is in close analogy with the treatment of the vowel of the classsign of the  $n\bar{a}$ -class: below, 717.

These roots are:

662. çā. set. and mid.: thus, çiçāti, çiçīmasi, çiçīhí (also çiçādhi: above. 654), çiçātu, açiçāt, çíçīte.

663. mā 'bellow', act., and mā 'measure', mid. (rarely also act.): thus, mimāti, mimanti, mimīyāt; mimīte. mimate, āmimīta; mimīhi, mimātu.

**684.** hā 'remove'. mid.: thus, jthīte, jihīdhve, jthate; jihīşva, jihatām; Ajihīta, ajihata.

**665.**  $h\bar{a}$  'quit', set. (originally identical with the former), may further shorten the  $\bar{i}$  to i: thus, *jahāti*, *jahītā*, *jahītāt* (AV.); *jahimas* (AV.), *jahitas* (TB.), *jahitām* (TA.), *ajahitām* (TS.). In the optative, the radical vowel is lost altogether; thus, *jahyām*, *jahyus* (AV.). The 2d sing. impv. is *jahīhi* or *jahihi*.

Compare with this the forms in dhi from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$  (below, 669).

**666.** rā 'give', mid.: thus, rarīdhvam. rarīthās (impf. without augment): and, with *i* in reduplication, rirīhi.

In all these verbs, the accent is constant on the reduplicating syllable.

667. The two roots  $d\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$  (the commonest of the class) lose their radical vowel altogether in the weak forms, being shortened to dad and dadh. In 2d sing. impv. act., they form respectively dehi and dhehi. In combination with a following t or th, the final dh of dadh does not follow the special rule of combination of a final sonant aspirate (becoming ddh with the t or th: 160), ¹ and dhe — the

more general rules of aspirate and of surd and sonant combination; and its lost aspiration is thrown back upon the initial of the root.

**668.** The inflection of  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$  is, then, as follows:

			Present In	dicative.		
		active.			middle.	
	s.	d.	р.	8.	d.	p.
1	dádhāmi	dadhvás	dadhmás	dadhé	dádhvah <b>e</b>	dúdhmah <b>e</b>
2	dádhāsi	dhatthús	dhatthá	dha <b>ts</b> é	dadhāth <b>e</b>	dhaddhve
3	dádhāti	dhattás	dádhati	dhatté	dadháte	dádhate
			Present O	ptative.		
1	dadhyấm	dadhyấva	dadhyấma	dådhīya	dádhīvahi	dádhīmahi
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
			Present Im	perative.		
1	dádhā <b>n</b> i	dádhāva	dádhāma	dádhāi	dádhāvahai	dádhāmah <b>āi</b>
2	dhehf	dhattám	dhattá	dhatsva	dadhāthām	dhaddhva <b>m</b>
3	dádhā <b>tu</b>	dhattắm	dádha <b>tu</b>	dhattām	dadhātām	da <b>dhat</b> ām
			Imper	fect.		
1	ádadhām	údadhva	ádadhma	ádadhi	ádadhvahi	údadhmahi

1	ádadhām	údadhva	ádadhma	ádadhi	<u>á</u> dadhvahi	údadh <b>ma</b> hi	
2	á <b>da</b> dhās	ádhattam	ádhatta	ádhatthäs	ádadhāthām	ádhaddhva <b>m</b>	
3	údadhū <b>t</b>	ádhattām	ádadh <b>us</b>	<b>ádhatt</b> a	ádadhūtūm	údadhata	
	Participles: act. dúdhat; mid. dúdhūna.						

In the middle (except impf.), only those forms are here accented for which there is authority in the accentuated texts, as there is discordance between the actual accent and that which the analogies of the class would lead us to expect. RV. has once *dhátse*: *dadhé* and *dadháte* might be perfect, so far as the form is concerned. RV. accents *dadhītá* once (*dádhīta* thrice); TS. and TB. have *dádhīran*.

The root  $d\bar{a}$  is inflected in precisely the same way, with change everywhere of dh to d.

**669.** The older language has irregularities as follows: **a.** the usual strong forms in 2d pl.,  $d\dot{a}dh\bar{a}ta$  and  $\dot{a}dad\bar{a}ta$ ,  $d\dot{a}d\bar{a}ta$  and  $\dot{a}dad\bar{a}ta$ ; **b.** the usual tana endings in the same person, dhattana,  $d\dot{a}d\bar{a}tana$ , etc.; **c.** the 3d sing. indic. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act.  $dadh\dot{e}$  (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhdh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhdh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhdh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhdh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing.); **d.** the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhh (like 1st sing

670. A number of roots have been transferred from this to the *a*-class (class VI., below, 749), their reduplicated root becoming a stereotyped stem inflected after the manner of *a*-stems. These roots are as follows:

671. In all periods of the language, from the roots  $sth\bar{a}$  'stand',  $p\bar{a}$  'drink', and  $ghr\bar{a}$  'smell', are made the presents

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tisthāmi, pibāmi (with irregular sonantizing of the second p: later often written pivāmi), and jighrāmi — which then are inflected not like mimāmi, but like bhávāmi, as if from the presentstems tistha, piba, jighra.

672. In the Veda, the reduplicated roots  $d\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$  are also sometimes turned into the *a*-stems  $d\dot{a}da$  and  $d\dot{a}dha$ , or inflected as if roots dad and dadh of class VI.; and single forms of the same character are made from other roots: thus, mimanti ( $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$  'bellow'), rárate ( $\sqrt{r\bar{a}}$  'give': 3d sing. mid.).

**673.** In the Veda, also, a like secondary root, *jighn*, is made from  $\sqrt{han}$  (with omission of the radical vowel, and conversion, usual in this root, of h to gh when in contact with n); and some of the forms of sacc, from  $\sqrt{sac}$ , show the same conversion to an *a*-stem, sacca.

674. In AB. (viii. 28), a similar secondary form, jighy, is given to  $\gamma$  hi: thus, jighyati, jighyatu.

675. A few so-called roots of the first or root-class are the products of reduplication, more or less obvious: thus, *jaks* (640), and probably  $c\bar{a}s$  (from V cas) and caks (from  $V k\bar{a}c$  or a lost root kas, 'see'). In the Veda is found also sacc, from V sac.

676. The grammarians reckon (as already noticed, 641) several roots of the most evidently reduplicate character as simple, and belonging to the rootclass. Some of these  $(j\bar{a}g_{\bar{i}}, davidr\bar{a}, vev\bar{\imath})$  are regular intensive stems, and will be described below under Intensives (chap. XIV.);  $d\bar{i}dh\bar{i}$ , 'shine', along with Vedic  $d\bar{i}d\bar{i}$  'shine' and  $p\bar{i}p\bar{i}$  'swell', are sometimes also classed as intensives; but they have not the proper reduplication of such, and may perhaps be best noticed here, as reduplicated present-stems with irregularly long reduplicating vowel.

Of pres. indic. occurs in the older language only dīdyati, 3d pl., with the pples dīdyat and dīdhyat, and mid. dīdye, dīdhye, dīdhyāthām, with the pples dīdyāna, dīdhyāna, pīpyāna. The subj. stems are dīdáya, dīdhaya, pīpúya, and from them are made forms with both primary (from dīdáya) and secondary endings (and the irregularly accented dīdayat and dīdāyat and dīdhayan). No opt. occurs. In impv. we have dīdihf (and didīhf) and pīpihf, and pipyatam, pipyatām, pipyata. In impf., adīdes and pīpes, ádīdet and ádīdhet and apīpet (with augmentless forms), apīpema (with strong form of root), and adīdhayus and (irregular) apīpyan.

A few forms from all the three show transfer to an *a*-inflection: thus,  $d\bar{d}haya$  and  $p\bar{p}aya$  (impv.),  $dp\bar{p}ayat$ , etc.

Similar forms from Vmi 'bellow' are amimet and mimayat.

677. The stem cakās (sometimes cakāc) is also regarded by the grammarians as a root, and supplied as such with tenses outside the presentsystem — which, however, hardly occur in genuine use. It is not known in the older language.

678. The root blas, 'chew', losss its radical vowel in weak forms, taking the form baps: thus, bdbhasti, but blas it (31), bigast (pple).

679. The root bli, 'fevowel in weak forms **680.** Forms of this class from  $\gamma$  jan, 'give birth', with added i — thus, jajñise, jajñidhve — are given by the grammarians, but do not appear to have been found in use.

**681.** The roots *ci* and *cit* have in the Veda reversion of *c* to *k* in the root-syllable after the reduplication: thus, *cikişi*, *cikithe* (anomalous, for *cikyáthe*), *cikitām*, *aciket*, *cikyat* (pple); *cikiddhi*.

**682.** The root vyac has i in the reduplication (from the y), and is contracted to vic in weak forms: thus, viviktás, áviviktām. So the root hvar (if its forms are to be reckoned here) has u in reduplication, and contracts to hur: thus, juhūrthās.

### III. Nasai Class (seventh, rudh-class).

**683.** The roots of this class all end in consonants. And their class-sign is a nasal preceding the final consonant: in the weak forms, a nasal simply, adapted in character to the consonant; but in the strong forms expanded to the syllable  $\exists n a$ , which has the accent.

In a few of the verbs of the class, the nasal extends also into other tense-systems: they are añj, bhañj, hins: see below, **694**.

### 1. Present Indicative.

684. Examples of inflection: a. the root युज् yuj; 'join': strong stem-form, युनज् yunáj; weak, युञ्च yuñj.

For the rules of combination of final j, see 219.

		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	p.	8.	d.	p.
1	যুনচিদ	युङवम्	युङ्मस्	युज्जे	युङ्ग्वरे	युङमव्हे
	yunájmi	yuñjvás	yuñjmás	yuñjé	yuñjváhe	ynmjmáhe
2	যুননি	युंक्यम्	युंक्य	युङ्गे	युञ्जाचे	युंग्घे
	yunáksi	yuñkthás	yuñkthá	yuākļé	yuñjäthe	yungdhvé
3	যুন্রি যুন্রি	युंक्तम्	युञ्जत्ति	युंक्ते	युञ्चाते	युञ्जते
1	s yunákti	yuñktás	yuñjánti	yuñkté	yuñjate	yuñjáte
	• .1					

b. the root तृध्rudh, 'obstruct'; bases तृषाध् runadh and रन्ध् rundh.

For rules of combination of final dh, see 153, 160.

1 रुपाध्मि	रुन्धम्	रुन्ध्मस्	हत्त्वे	हन्धरे	हन्ध्मके
runádhmi	rundhvás	rundhmás	rundhé	rundhváhe	rundhmáhe

2	रूणतिम	फून्दम्	নিন্দ্র	रुल्से	रून्धारे	हन्द्रे
	ruņātai	runddhás	runddhá	runtsé	rundhåthe	runddhvé
3	रूपादि	हन्द्रम्	रून्धत्ति	हन्हे	रूम्पाते	फ्रन्धते
	runaddhi	runddhás	rundhánti	runddhø	rundhåte	rundháie

Instead of yunkthas, yungdhve, and the like (here and in the impv. and impf.), it is allowed and more usual (231) to write yunthas, yundhve, etc.; and, in like manner, rundhas, rundhe. for runddhas, runddhe; and so in other like cases.

**685.** Vedic irregularities of inflection are: a. the ordinary use of a 3d sing. mid. like the 1st sing., as  $v_{f}\tilde{n}_{f}\varepsilon_{f}$ ; b. the accent on  $t\tilde{\epsilon}$  of 3d pl. mid. in affaté, inducté, bhuñjaté.

### 2. Present Subjunctive.

686. The stem is made, as usual, by adding a to the strong present-stem: thus, yundja, runddha. Below are given as if made from 1 yuy all the forms for which examples have been noted as actually occurring in the older language.

		active.			middle.	
	*	d.	P.	۶.	d.	p.
۱	yundjāni	yundjāra	yundjāma	<b>yun</b> ajai		<b>yun</b> ájāmahāi
3	yumities.					<b>yun</b> ajādhrāi
\$	yun ijat	yundjatas	yundjan	yundjate		

687. The RV, has once adjatas, which is anomalous as being made from the weak tense-stem. Forms with double mode-sign are met with: thus, typohän AV., sumajän GR.; and the only quotable example of 3d du. act, besides adjatas is binasätas GR. GR. has also binasäras as 1st du. act.; an elsewhere unexampled form.

### 3. Present Optative.

655. The optative is made, as elsewhere, by adding the compounded mode-endings to the weak form of presentstem. Thus:

artive.			R.Iddie.			
*	4	r	1	2	P.	
, युङ्गान्	মূহনাল	যুক্তমান	মূহ্রমি	যুৱালাক্	যুষ্ণাদাই	
	unitiona	Nauguri interes	111111111	เหตุการคล่า	www.mahi	
**	et.	n1;	**	£1.	etc.	

### 4. Present Imperative

600. In this class as the roots all end in consonants the ending of the 3d sing, are, is always fit dial.

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III. NASAL CLASS (SEVENTH, rudh-CLASS).

8.	active. d.	p.	8.	middle. d.	<b>p.</b>
1 युनज्ञानि	युनज्ञाव	युनजाम	युनजी	युनजावर्हे	युनजामकै
vunájāni	yunájāva	yunájāma	yunájāi	vunájāvahāi	yunájāmahāi
2 युंग्पि	युंक्तम्	युंक्त	युंत्त्व	युञ्जायाम्	युंग्धम्
yuñgdhl	yuāktám	yuñktá	yuñkșvá	yuñjáthām	yungdhvám
3 युनक्त	युंक्ताम्	युञ्च <b>तु</b>	युंक्ताम्	युञ्जाताम्	युञ्जताम्
yunáktu	yunktam	yuñjántu	yunktám	yuñjắtām	yuñjátām

**690.** There is no occurrence, so far as noted, of the ending  $t\bar{a}t$  in verbs of this class. The Veda has, as usual, sometimes strong forms, and sometimes the ending tana, in the 2d pl. act.: thus, unátta, yunákta, anaktana, pinastana.

### 5. Present Participle.

691. The participles are made in this class as in the preceding ones: thus, act. युञ्चन् yuñjánt (fem. युञ्चनी yunjati); mid. युञ्चान yuñjāná (but RV. has indhāna).

## 6. Imperfect.

692. The example of the regular inflection of this tense needs no introduction:

	<b>s.</b>	active. d.	р.	8.	middle. d.	р.
1	म्रयुनजम्	म्रयुङ्च	म्रयुङम	ऋयुझि	म्रयुङ्वकि	म्रयुङमकि
	^{áy ua jam}	_{áyuñj} va	_{áyuñjma}	_{dyuñji} i	_{áyuñjvalu} i	ayuñjmahi
2	म्रयुनक्	म्रयुं क्तम्	म्रयुंक्त	श्रयुंक्यास्	म्वयुञ्जाथाम्	म्रगुंग्धम्
	_{dyunak}	dyuāktam	dyuākta	<i>6yuākthās</i>	¢yuñjāthām	_{dyungdhvam}
3	म्रयुनक्	म्रयुंक्ताम्	म्रयुञ्जन्	घयुं क	म्रयुञ्चाताम्	घयुञ्जत
	_{dyunak}	_{áyuāktām}	_{áyuñjan}	_{áyuākta}	_{áyuñjātām}	^{áyuñjata}

The endings s and t are necessarily lost in the nasal class throughout in 2d and 3d sing. act., unless saved (555) at the expense of the final radical consonant: which is a case of very rare occurrence: in the older language have been noted only *akinat* (TB.), 3d sing., for *akinas* ( $\gamma$ *kins*), and once in AV. *abhanas*, 2d sing., for *abhanak* ( $\gamma$ *bhañy*); this last is a case of the utmost rarity.

693. The Veda shows no irregularities in this tense. Occurrences of augmentless forms are found, especially in 2d and 3d sing. act., showing an accent like that of the present: for example, bhinát, prnák, vrnák, pinák, rinak.

698]

### Irregularities of the Nasal Class.

694. The roots which thus expand a penultimate nasal in the strong forms of the present-system into a syllable ná are about twenty-five: namely, tac, prc, ric, vic, añj, bhañj, vrj, bhuj, yuj, krt 'spin', chrd, trd, chid, bhid, ud, rdh, idh, rudh, ubh. aç (anaçāmahāi, once, RV.), pis, çiş, hins, trh. Those here written with the nasal — namely añj, bhañj, hins — have that addition also in the other tense-systems. Two, rdh and ubh, make present-systems also of other classes with nasal class-signs: thus, rdhnoti (cl. IV.), ubhnāti (cl. V. Several have a-stems with penultimate nasal: thus, prācá, çinšá, trìnhá, umbhá; and occasional a-forms, especially in the later language, are met with from others: thus, bhuñjet, chindeta, apiñsat, arundhat (compare the nasalized roots of the á-class, below, 758).

695. The root in combines in the state of the second state of the second second

**696.** The root hims (by origin apparently a desiderative from  $\gamma$ /ham) accents irregularly the root syllable in the weak forms: thus, himsenti, himste (but hindsat etc.).

## IV. Nu and u-classes (fifth and eighth, su and tan-classes).

697. A. The present-stem of the *nu*-class is made by adding to the root the syllable  $\neg nu$ , which then in the strong forms receives the accent, and is strengthened to  $\neg n n n o$ .

B. The few roots of the *u*-class about half-a-dozen) end in  $\exists n$ . with the exception of the later irregular  $\exists kr$ (or *kar* — for which, see below, 714. The two classes, then, are closely correspondent in form; and they are wholly accordant in inflection.

The u of either class-sign is allowed to be dropped before v and m of the 1st du. and 1st pl. endings, except when the root (*nu*-class) ends in a consonant; and the u before a vowelending becomes v or uv, according as it is preceded by one or by two consonants (129).

#### 1. Present Indicative.

698. Examples of inflection: A. nu-class; root H su, 'press out': strong form of stem, Hai suno; weak form,



700] IV. Nu- AND u- (FIFTH AND EIGHTH, su- AND tan-) CLASSES. 233

	active.			middle.	
8.	d.	p.	<b>6</b> .	d.	p.
1 सुनोमि	सुनुवस्	सुनुमस्	सुन्वे	मुनुवर्छे	मुनुमके
sunómi	sumuvás	sunumás	sunvé	sunuváhe	sunumáhe
2 सुनोषि sunóși	सुनुषम् sunuthás	सुनुष sunuthá	मुनुषे sunușé	सुन्वाघे sunvåthe	सुनुघे sunudhvé
3 सुनोति sunóti	सुनुतम् sunutás	सुन्वत्ति sunvánti	मुनुते sunuté	सुन्वाते sunváte	सुन्वते sunváte

The forms sunvás, sunmás, sunváhe, sunmáhe are alternative with those given here for 1st du. and pl., and in practice are more common (no examples of the fuller forms have been noted from the older language). From  $\sqrt{ap}$ , however (for example), only the forms with *u* can occur: thus, *āpnuvás*, *āpnumáhe*; and also only *āpnuvánti*, *āpnuvá*, *āpnuváte*.

B. u-class; root নন্ tan, 'stretch': strong form of stem, ননা tano; weak, নন্ tanu.

1 तनोमि	तन्वस्	तन्मम्	तन्वे	तन्वके	तन्मके
tanómi	tanvás	tanmás	tanvé	tanváhe	tanmáhe
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

The inflection is so precisely like that given above that it is not worth writing out in full. The abbreviated forms in 1st du. and pl. are presented here, instead of the fuller, which rarely occur (as no double consonant ever precedes).

**699.** In the older language, no strong 2d perss. du. or pl., and no *thana*-endings, chance to occur (but they are numerous in the impv. and impf.: see below). The RV. has several cases of the irregular accent in 3d pl. mid.: thus, *tanvaté*, *manvaté*, *sprpvaté*.

In RV. occur also several 3d pll. mid. in *ire* from present-stems of this class: thus, *invire*, *mvire*, *pinvire*, *sunviré*, *sunviré*, *hinviré*. Of these, *pinvire* and *hinviré* might be perfects without reduplication from the secondary roots *pinv* and *hinv* (below, **716**). The 2d sing. mid. (with passive value) *smvisé* (RV.) is of anomalous and questionable character.

### 2. Present Subjunctive.

700. The subjunctive mode-stem is made in the usual manner, by adding a to the gunated and accented class-sign: thus, sunáva, tanáva. In the following scheme are given all the forms of which examples have been met with in actual use in the older language from either division of the class: some of them are quite numerously represented there.

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	p.	
1	sunávāni	<b>suná</b> väva	<b>suná</b> vāma	sunáväi	<b>sun</b> ávävahäi	<b>suná</b> vämahāi	
2	sunávas		<b>sun</b> ávatha	<b>suná</b> vase	sunáväithe		
3	sunúvat		sunávan	{sunávate {sunávātāi		<b>mn</b> ávanta	

701. Of the briefer 1st sing. act., RV. has kṛṇavā and hinavā. Forms with double mode-sign occur (not in RV.): thus, kṛṇávāt and karavāt (AV.); acnavātha (K.), kṛṇavātha (VS.; but -vatha in Kāṇva-text), karavātha (ÇB.). On the other hand, acnavatāi is found once (in TS.). RV. has in a single passage kṛṇvāfte (instead of kṛṇávāite): the only form in āithe is acnávāithe.

### 3. Present Optative.

702. The combined endings (566) are added, as usual, to the weak tense-stem: thus,

	active.					middle.				
	<b>S</b> .	d.		р.		<b>S</b> .		d.	p.	
1	सुनुयाम् sunuyam etc.	सुनुया sunny etc	/åva	मुनुयाम sunuyá etc.		मुन्वीय sunvīyá etc.		īváhi		
	From	√āp,	the	middle	optat	ive woul	d be	ā pnu	īyá —	and

so in other like cases.

### 4. Present Imperative.

703. The inflection of the imperative is in general like that in the preceding classes. As regards the 2d sing. act., the rule of the later language is that the ending  $\overline{te}$  hi is taken whenever the root itself ends in a consonant; otherwise, the tense- (or mode-) stem stands by itself as 2d person (for the earlier usage, see below, 704). Example of inflection is:

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	s.	d.	p.	
1	सुनवानि _.	मुनवाव	सुनवाम (	सुनव <u>ै</u>	मुनवावर <u>ू</u>	मुनवामकै	
	sunavanı	sunávava	sunárām <b>a</b>	sunávāi	sunavavahai	sunávāmahāi	
2	मुनु sunú	मुनुतम् sunutám	सुनुत sunutá	मुनुष sunușvá	मुन्वाद्याम् sunváthām	सुनुधम् sunudhvám	
8	मुनोतु sunótu	मुनुताम् sunutam	मुन्वत्तु sunvántu	मुनुताम् sunutám	मुन्वाताम् sunvátām	सुन्वताम् sunvátām	

707 IV. Nu- AND u- (FIFTH AND EIGHTH, su- AND tan-) CLASSES. 235

From  $\sqrt{ap}$ , the 2d sing. act. would be  $\overline{apnuhi}$ ; from  $\sqrt{aq}$ , aquuli; from  $\sqrt{dhrs}$ , dhrsnuhi; and so on. From  $\sqrt{ap}$ , too, would be made  $\overline{apnuvantu}$ ,  $\overline{apnuvatham}$ ,  $\overline{apnuvatam}$ ,  $\overline{apnuvatam}$ .

**704.** In the earliest language, the rule as to the omission of hi after a root with final vowel does not hold good: in RV., such forms as *inuhi*, *kṛnuhi*, *cinuhi*, *dhūnuhi*, *cṛnuhi*, *spṛṇuhi*, *hinuhi*, and *tanuhi*, *sanuhi*, are thrice as frequent in use as *inú*, *cṛṇu*, *sunú*, *tanu*, and their like; in AV., however, they are not more than one third as frequent; and in the Brāhmanas they appear only sporadically; even *cṛṇudhi* (with *dhi*) occurs several times in RV. The ending *tāt* is found in *kṛṇutāt* and *hinutāt*, and *kurutāt*. The strong stem-form is found in 2d du. act. in *hinotam*; and in 2d pl. act. in *kṛṇóta* and *kṛṇótana*, *cṛṇota* and *cṛṇotana*, *sunóta* and *sunótana*, *hinóta* and *hinotana*, and *tanota*, *karóta*. The ending *tana* occurs only in the forms just quoted.

### 5. Present Participle.

705. The endings म्रस् and मान ana are added to the weak form of tense stem: thus, from VH su come act. मुन्चस् sunvant (fem. मुन्चती sunvati), mid. मुन्चान sunvana; from Vतन् tan, तन्वस् tanvant (fem. तन्वती tanvati), तन्चान tanvana. From V माप् ap, they are माम्रुवस् apnuvant and माम्रुवान apnuvana.

### 6. Imperfect.

706. The combination of augmented stem and endings is according to the rules already stated: thus,

1	s. म्रमुनवम् ásunavam	active. d. मस्नुव ásunuva	P. मनुनुम ásunuma	म्रमुन्वि ásunvi	middle. d. म्रमुनुवहिः dsunuvahi	P. म्रमुनुमहि asunumahi
2	म्रमुनोम्	म्रमुनुतम्	म्रमुनुत	म्रमुनुयाम्	म्रमुन्वायाम्	म्रमुनुधम्
	ásunos	ásunutam	ásunuta	ásunuthās	ásunvāthām	ásunudhvam
3	म्रमुनोत्	म्रमुनुताम्	म्रमुन्वन्	म्रमुनुत	म्रमुन्वाताम्	म्रमुन्वत
	ásunot	ásunutām	ásunvan	ásunuta	ásunvātām	ásunvata

Here, as elsewhere, the briefer forms ásunva, ásunma, ásunvahi, ásunmahi are allowed, and more usual, except from roots with final consonant, as dhrs; which makes, for example, always ádhrsnuma etc., and also ádhrsnuvan, ádhrsnuvi, ádhrsnuvāthām, ádhrsnuvātām, ádhrsnuvata.

707. Strong stem-forms and tana-ending are found only in RV., in akynota, akynotana. Augmentless forms with accent are minván, hinván, rpulá.

#### Irregularities of the nu and u-classes.

708. Less than thirty roots form their present-system in the manner set forth above, by the addition of the class-sign nu to the root: they are  $ak_s$ ,  $a_{\zeta}$  'attain',  $tak_s$ , dabh, cak, sagh,  $\bar{a}p$ ,  $d\bar{a}_{\zeta}$ , r,  $k_{T}$  'make',  $v_{T}$  ( $\bar{u}r$ ),  $st_{T}$ ,  $sp_{T}$ , rdh,  $t_{T}p$ ,  $dhr_{s}$ , i 'send' (or in: see below, 716),  $k_{s}i$  'destroy', ci, dhi, mi 'prop', hi, u, du, cru, su, sku, prus,  $dh\bar{u}$ : and of these, several (as  $tak_s$ , sagh,  $d\bar{a}c$ , u, sku) have only isolated forms of this class.

709. The root *trp*, 'enjoy', is said by the grammarians to retain the *n* of its class-sign unlingualized in the later language — where, however, forms of conjugation of this class hardly occur; while in the Veda the regular change is made: thus, *trpnu*.

710. The root cru, 'hear', is contracted to cr before the class-sign, forming cruo i and cruu as stem. Its forms cruvisé and cruviré have been noted above (699).

711. The root  $dh\bar{u}$  in the later language shortens its vowel, making the stem-forms dhunó and dhunu (earlier  $dh\bar{u}n\delta$ ,  $dh\bar{u}nu$ ).

712. The so-called root  $\bar{u}rnu$ , treated by the native grammarians as dissyllable and belonging to the root-class (I.), is properly a present-stem of this class, with anomalous contraction, from the root vr (or var). In the Veda, it has no forms which are not regularly made according to the nuclass; but in the Brähmana language are found sometimes such forms as  $\bar{u}rn\bar{u}uti$ , as if from an u-root of cl. I. (626); and the grammarians make for it a perfect, aorist, future, etc. Its 2d sing. impv. act. is  $\bar{u}rnu$  or  $\bar{u}rnuti$ , its impf.,  $\bar{u}urnot$ ; its opt. mid.,  $\bar{u}rnuvita$  (K.) or  $\bar{u}rnvita$  (TS.).

713. The roots of the other division, or of the *u*-class, are extremely few: they are *tan*, *man*, *van*, *san*; also *kşan* (not in V.: in CB., and very rarely later), and  $k_r$  'make' (in late Vedic and later); and BR. assume *in* of the *u*-class instead of *i* of the *nu*-class.

714. The extremely common root  $\overline{\eta} kr$  (or kar), 'make', is in the later language inflected in the present-system exclusively according to the u-class (being the only root of that class not ending in  $\overline{\eta}$  n). It has the irregularity that in the strong form of stem it (as well as the class-sign) has the guna-strengthening, and that in the weak form it is changed to kur, so that the two forms of stem are  $\overline{\eta}$   $\overline{\eta}$  kuru. The class-sign  $\exists u$  is always dropped bef and  $\overline{\eta}$  m of the 1st du. and pl., and also before opt. act. Thus: 715] IV. Nu- AND u- (FIFTH AND EIGHTH, su- AND tan-) CLASSES. 237

	Present Indicative.								
		active.			middle.	_			
				<u> </u>		·•			
	ા વારાામ	વુાવલ્	વુાનન્	୍ରାମ	^{d.} कुर्वरू kurváhe	<b>લુમ</b> ન્દ્			
	karómi	kurvás	kurmás	kurvé	kurváhe	kurmáhe			
	2 करोषि	कृत्वस्	कृत्वय	कृतवे	कुर्वाष्ठे	कुरुधे			
	karósi	kuruthas	kuruthd	i kuruşe	নুর্বাষ্ট kurváthe	kurudhvé			
	3 करोति	करतम	<b>ਰ</b> ਹੀਜ	कुरुते i kuruté	कुर्वाते	कर्वने			
	karóti	Julia	Jacoman	i juju	kurväte	kurváte			
	KUTUU	K147-ULUS	KU7 UU711	i <i>K</i> urulo	Kurvule	KU17UU18			
			Present	Optative.					
	1 कर्याम	कर्याव	कर्याम	कर्वीय	कुर्वीवरिू kurvīváki	कर्वीमकि			
	kurvám	kurváva	kurväma	kurvīvá	kurvīvali	kurvīmahi			
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.			
	Present Imperative.								
	<del></del>				करवावकै				
1	वार्षाण	୩ <b>(</b> ୩ାମ ୩ , , – ,	।रवान / -	વા(વ ્	୩(ସାସଙ୍ , , _ , _ , _ ,	વારવામજ			
	-					karávāmahāi			
2	कात	कुक्तन व	ha	ক্রমন্ব ব	क्त्वांधाम्	कुरुधम्			
	kurú	kurutám k	urutá	kuruşvá i	कुर्वाषाम् kurváthām	kurudhvám			
	करोन ।	क प्रताम ज	- del	कार्जनाम व	कुर्वाताम् kurvátām	कर्वनाम			
З				June 4	1041(114 	humhtam			
	Karotu .	kurutam ki	urvanuu	Kurulam I	kurvalam	Kurvutum			
			Present	Participle.					
	कुर्वत्त्	<i>kurvánt</i> (f	iem. कुर्वत	ft kurvati)	कुर्वाण 🛵	ırvāņá			
			Imp	erfect.					
1	म्रकावम	म्रकर्व	म्रकर्म	म्रकर्वि	म्रकुर्वकि ákurvaki	म्रकर्मकि			
•	ákaravam	ákurva	ákurma	ákurvi	ákurvahi	ákurmahi			
2	<b>श्रकारा</b> स्	ત્રવુ (તમ્	ત્રવુ (ત	ચલુ હથામ્	ત્રવુાવાથામ્	म्रकुरुधम् ákurudhvam			
	ákaros	å <i>kurutam</i>	ákuruta	åku <del>r</del> uthäs	å kurväthäm	ákurudhvam			
3	म्रकरोत	म्रकुरुताम	म्रकुर्वनु	मन्तत	म्रकुर्वाताम् akurvātām	ম্বকুর্বন			
	ákarot .	ákurutām	ákurvan	á <b>kuruta</b>	ákurvātām	ákurvata			
				-					

715. In RV., this root is regularly inflected in the present-system according to the *nu*-class, making the stem-forms  $k_{TPM}$  and  $k_{TPM}$ ; the only exceptions are *kurmas* once and *kuru* twice (all in the tenth book); in AV., the *nu*-forms are still more than six times as frequent as the *u*-forms (nearly half of which, moreover, are in prose passages); but in the Brāhmaņa language, the *u*-forms are used almost to the exclusion of the others.

What irregular forms from ky as a verb of the nu-class occur in the older language have been already noticed above.

The isolated form *taruté*, from  $\gamma tr$ , shows an apparent analogy with these *u*-forms from kr.

716. A few verbs belonging originally to these classes have been shifted, in part or altogether, to the a-class, their proper class-sign having been stereotyped as a part of the root.

Thus, in RV. we find forms both from the stem inu ( $\gamma$ i or in), and also from fava, representing a derivative quasi-root inv (and these latter alone occur in AV.). So likewise forms from a stem *rava* beside those from *rava* ( $\gamma$ r); and from hinv beside those from hinu ( $\gamma$ hi). The so-called roots *jinv* and *pinv* are doubtless of the same origin, although no forms from stems *jinu* and *pinu* are met with at any period — unless *pinvire* and *hinviré* (above, 699) be so regarded; and AV. has the participle *pinvánt*, f. *pinvati*. The grammarians set up a root *dhinv*, but only forms from *dhi* (stem *dhinu*; appear to occur in the present-system (the aorist *adhinvit* is found in PB.).

### V. $N\bar{a}$ -class (ninth or $kr\bar{i}$ -class).

717. The class-sign of this class is in the strong forms the syllable  $\neg \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{a}$ , accented, which is added to the root; in the weak forms, or where the accent falls upon the endings, it is  $\neg \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{i}$ ; but before the initial vowel of an ending the  $\frac{1}{5} \ \mathbf{i}$  of  $\neg \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{n} \ \mathbf{i}$  disappears altogether.

## 1. Present Indicative.

718. Example of inflection: root की kri. 'buy'; strong form of stem, कीपा krinå; weak form, कीपा krini (before a vowel, कीपा krin.

		active.			middle.	
		<u>a</u> .	. p.	8.	d.	P.
1	न्नीणामि	क्रीगीवम्	<b>क्रीणीम</b> स्	क्रीपो	त्रीणीवरु	^{₽.} क्रीणीमरहे
	krīņāmi	k <del>rīņ</del> īvás `	k <del>rīņ</del> īmás	krīņé	k <del>rīņ</del> īváhe	k <del>rī</del> ņīmáhc
2	न्नीपासि	<b>क्रीणी</b> थम्	क्रीणीय	क्रीणीपे	क्रीणाये	न्नीणीधे
	krīņāsi	k <del>rīņ</del> īthás	krīņīthá	krīņīsé	krīņāthe	k <del>rīņ</del> īdhvé
8	<b>क्री</b> णाति	<b>क्री</b> णीतम्	क्रीणत्ति	क्रीपीते	कीणाते	क्रीणते
	krīņāti	krīņītás 🔪	k <b>r</b> īņánti	krīņīté	krīņāte	krīņáte

**719.** In the Veda, the 3d sing. mid. has the same form with the 1st in grné; the peculiar accent of 3d pl. mid. is seen in *punaté* and *rinaté*; and *vrnimahé* (beside *vrnimáhe*) occurs once in RV.

### 2. Present Subjunctive.

720. The subjunctive forms which have been found exemplified in Veda and Brähmana are given below. The sub-

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junctive mode-stem is, of course, indistinguishable in form from the strong tense-stem. And the 2d and 3d sing. act. (with secondary endings) are indistinguishable from augmentless imperfects.

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	8.	d.	р.	
1	k <del>r</del> īņāni		krīņāma	krīņāl	k <b>riņ</b> āvahāi	k <del>r</del> iņāma <b>h</b> āi	
2	krīņā s		<b>krīņ</b> ātha	kriņāsāi			
3	krīņģt		krī <b>ņ</b> ģn	<b>krīņātā</b> i		krīņāntāi	

## 3. Present Optative.

721. This mode is formed and inflected with entire regularity; owing to the fusion of tense-sign and mode-sign in the middle, some of its persons are indistinguishable from augmentless imperfects. Its first persons are as follows:

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	8.	d.	р.	
1	<b>क्रीणीयाम्</b>	क्रीणीयाव	क्रीणीयाम	क्रीणीय	<b>क्री</b> पीवर्दि	न्नीणीमहि	
	krīņī yām `	krīņīyāva	krīņīyāma	krīņīyá	krīņīváhi	krīņīmáhi	
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	
	An isolated	v <del>r</del> ñjiyam ir	n AB. is dou	btless a m	isreading.		

### 4. Present Imperative.

722. The ending in 2d sing. act., as being always preceded by a vowel, is  $\overline{ig}$  hi (never  $\overline{iu} dhi$ ); and there are no examples of an omission of it. But this person is forbidden to be formed in the classical language from roots ending in a consonant; for both class-sign and ending is substituted the peculiar ending  $\overline{and}$ .

	· r···			•		
		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	р.
1	क्रीणानि	न्नीणाव	न्नीषाम	क्रीपी		न्नीणामकै
	krīņāni	krīņáva	krīņāma	krīņāi	krīņ <b>a</b> vahāi	krīņāmahāi
2	क्रीणीव्हि	क्रीणीतम्	ঙ্গীণ্যীন	<b>क्री</b> गीघ	क्रीणाद्याम्	
	krīņīhi	krīņītám	krīņītá	krīņīsvá	krīņāthām	krīņīdhvám
3		त्रीणीताम्		क्रीणीताम्		
	krīņātu	krīņītām 🗋	k <del>r</del> īņántu	krīņītām	krīņātām	krīņátām
	Examp	les of the	ending	āná in 2d	sing. act.	are <i>açāna</i> ,

gṛhāṇá, badhāná, stabhāná.

723. The ending and is known also to the earliest language; of the examples just given, all are found in AV., and the first two in RV. But AV. has also grbhnihi (also AB.), and even grhnihi, with strong stem. Strong stems are further found in grnihi and strnähi (TS.), and, with anomalous accent, punähi and crnähi (SV.); and, in 2d pl. act., in punäta (RV.). The ending tat of 2d sing. act. occurs in grhnität, jänität, punität. The ending tana is found in punitána, prinitána, crinitána.

### 5. Present Participle.

724. The participles are regularly formed: thus, for example, act. ज्ञीपास् kriņant (fem. ज्ञीपासी kriņati); mid. ज्ञीपास kriņāna.

### 6. Imperfect.

725. There is nothing special to be noted as to the inflection of this tense: an example is

		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	<b>.</b> .	d.	<b>P</b> .
1	म्बक्रीणाम्	म्रक्रीणीव	म्रक्रीणीम	म्रक्रीणि	म्रक्रीणीवरिः	म्रक्रीणीमक्ति
	ákrīņām 🗋	akrīņīva	ákrīņīma	ákrīņi	ákrīņīvahi	ák <del>riņīm</del> ahi
2	<b>म्रक्री</b> णास्	म्रक्रीणीतम्	म्रक्रीपीत	म्रक्रीणीथास्	म्रक्रीणावाम्	म्रक्रीणीधम्
	ákrīņās 🕺	àkrīņītam 🔪	ákrīņīta	á krīņī thās	àkrīņāthām	ákrīņīdhvam
8	म्बक्रीपात्	म्रक्रीणीताम्	म्रक्रीपान्	म्रक्रीणीत	म्रक्रीणाताम्	म्रक्रीणत
	ákrīņāt 🗋	akrīņītām	akrīņan `	ákrīņī <i>t</i> a	ákrīņātām	ákrīņata

726. It has been pointed out above that augmentless persons of this tense are in part indistinguishable in form from subjunctive and optative persons. Such as certainly belong here are (in V.) ksinām; açnan, rinán; grbhnata, vinata. The AV. has once minīt instead of mināt.

### Irregularities of the $n\bar{a}$ -class.

727. The roots which form present-systems after the manner of this class are between forty and fifty in number: namely, aç 'enjoy', grath, grabh and grah, bandh, math, ram, çcam, çrath, skabh, stabh,  $\bar{a}p$ ,  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}$ , gr 'sing', dr, pr 'fill', mr 'destroy', rr 'choose', cr, str, hr 'be angry', mrd, is, ksi 'destroy', ji ( $jy\bar{a}$ , 'harm'), mi 'lessen', ri, si, kliç,  $kr\bar{i}$ ,  $pr\bar{i}$ ,  $bhr\bar{i}$ ,  $vl\bar{i}$ ,  $cr\bar{i}$ , ubh, us, kus, pus, prus, mus,  $j\bar{u}$ ,  $dr\bar{u}$ ,  $p\bar{u}$ ,  $l\bar{u}$ ,  $hr\bar{u}$ . Some of these have only isolated forms: thus,  $bhr\bar{i}$ ,  $hr\bar{u}$ ,  $dr\bar{u}$ , ccam (only ccámnan, RV., with anomalous accent),  $\bar{a}p$  (only  $apn\bar{a}na$ , RV., do.), prus. And AV. has single forms from vr 'ward off', and gr 'swallow'. 784]

728. The roots ending in  $\overline{u}$  shorten that vowel before the class-sign: thus, from  $\sqrt{p\overline{u}}$ , pundti and punits.

729. The root grabh or grah (the former Vedic) is weakened to grbh or grh.

730. A few of the roots have a more or less persistent nasal in forms outside the present-system; such are without nasal before the class-sign: thus, grath or granth, bandh, math or manth, skabh or skambh, stabh or stambh.

The root  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}$  also loses its nasal before the class-sign : thus,  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}t\bar{t}$ ,  $j\bar{a}n\bar{t}t\bar{t}$ .

731. Occasionally, forms showing a transfer to the *a*-conjugation are met with: thus, even in RV., *minati*, *minat*, *aminanta*, from  $\sqrt{mi}$ ; in AV., *grna* from  $\sqrt{gr}$ . And from roots *pr* and *mr* are formed the stems *prná* and *mrná*, which are inflected after the manner of the *á*-class, as if from roots *prn* and *mrn*.

732. In the Veda, an apparently denominative inflection of a stem in  $\bar{a}y\dot{a}$  is not infrequent beside the conjugation of roots of this class: thus, grbhāyá, mathāyáti, açrathāyas, skabhāyáta, astabhāyat, prusāyánte, musāyát, and so on. See below, 1068 b.

733. We come now to the classes which compose the Second Conjugation. These are more markedly similar in their mode of inflection than the preceding classes; their common characteristics, already stated, may be here repeated in summary. They are:

A final a in the present-stem; a constant accent, not changing between stem and ending; a briefer form of the optative mode-sign in the active, namely  $\bar{i}$  instead of  $y\bar{a}$  (combining in both voices alike with a to e); the absence of any ending (except when  $t\bar{a}t$  is used) in 2d sing. impv. act.; the conversion of initial  $\bar{a}$  of the 2d and 3d du. mid. endings to e; the use of the full endings *ante*, *anta*, *antām* in 3d pl. mid. forms; and the invariable use of an (not us) in 3d pl. impf. act. Moreover, the stem-final a becomes  $\bar{a}$  before m and v of 1st personal endings — but not before am of 1st sing. impf.: here, as before the 3d pl. endings, the stem-final is lost, and the short a of the ending remains (or the contrary): thus, bhávanti (bháva + anti), bhávante (bháva + ante), ábhavam (ábhava + am).

## VI. A-class (first, $bh\bar{u}$ -class).

734. The present-stem of this class in made by adding 习 a to the root, which has the accent, and, when that is possible (235, 240), is strengthened to guna. Thus, 理 Whitney, Grammar.

[7**34**----

bháva from  $\gamma$   $\gamma$  bhū; ज्ञग jáya from  $\gamma$  ज़ि j; नोघ bódha from  $\gamma$  ज़ुघ budh; सर्प sárpa from  $\gamma$  सृप् s, p; — but at váda from  $\gamma$  वद् vad; ज्ञीड krida from  $\gamma$  ज़्रीडू krid; ज़ुम्भ çúmbha from  $\gamma$  ज़्रीम्भ çúmbh; and so on.

## 1. Present Indicative.

735. The endings and the rules for their combination with the stem have been already fully given, for this and the other parts of the present-system; and it only remains to illustrate them by examples.

Example of inflection: root भू bhū, 'be'; stem भव bháva.

		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	р.	5.	d.	p.
1	भवामि	भवावस्	भवामस्	ਮਕੇ	भवावके	भवामके
	bhávāmi	bhávāvas	bhávāmas	bháve	bhávāvahe	bháv <b>āmah</b> e
2	भवसि	भवद्यस्	ਮਕਬ	भवसे	ਮਕੇਬੇ	ਮਕਬੇ
	bhávasi	bhávathas	bhávatha	bháva <b>s</b> e	bhávethe	bhávadhve
3	ਮਕਨਿ	भवतम्	भवत्ति	ਮਕਨੇ	ਮਕੇਨੇ	भवत्ते
	bhávati	bhávatas	bhávanti	b <b>h</b> ávate	bhávete	bhávante

The V. has but a single example of the *thana*-ending, namely vádathana (and no other in any class of this conjugation). The 1st pl. mid. manāmahé ( $\mathbb{RV}$ , once) is probably an error.

#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

736. The mode-stem is  $bh dw \bar{a}$  (bh dw a + a). Subjunctive forms of this conjugation are very numerous in the older language: the following scheme instances all that have been found to occur.

	active.		middle.			
5.	d.	р.	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	
1 bhávāni	bhávāva	bhávāma	bhávāi	bhávāvahāi	bhávāmahāi	
s {bhávāsi bhávās	bhávāthas	bhávātha	{bhávāse {bhávāsāi		bhávādhvāi	
s {bhávāti bhávāt	bhávātas	bhávā <b>n</b>	∫bhávāte \bhávātāi	bháv <b>āite</b>	{bháva <b>nt</b> a {b <b>háv</b> ā <b>nt</b> āi	

737. The 2d du. mid. (bhávāithe) does not chance to occur in this class; and yátāite is the only example of the 3d person. No such pl. mid. forms as bhávādhve, bhávānte are made from any class with stem-final a;

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such as *bhávanta* (which are very common) are, of course, properly augmentless imperfects. The Brāhmaņas (especially CB.) prefer the 2d sing. act. in  $\bar{a}si$  and the 3d in  $\bar{a}t$ . A 3d pl. in *antāi* (variantāi, KB.) has been noted once. RV. has an example, *arcā*, of the briefer 1st sing. act.

### 3. Present Optative.

738. The scheme of optative endings as combined with the final of an *a*-stem was given in full above (566).

		active.		middle.			
	8.	<b>d</b> .	p.	5.	d.	p.	
1	भवेयम्	ਮਕੇਬ	भवेम	ਮਕੇਧ	भवेवरिः	भवेमहि	
	bháveyam	bháveva	bháve <b>m</b> a	bháveya	bháveva hi	bhávemahi	
2	भवेस्		ਮਕੇਨ	भवेषास्		भवेधम्	
	bháves	bhávetam	bháveta	bhávethās	bháveyāthām	bhávedh <b>vam</b>	
8	भवेत्	भवेताम्	भवेयुम्	ਮਕੇਨ	भवेयाताम्	भवेरन्	
	bhávet	bhávetūm	bháveyn <b>s</b>	bháveta	bháveyātām	bháveran	
	The RV.	has once	the 3d pl.	mid. bhara	rata (for one o	other example,	
se	e <b>752</b> ).						

### 4. Present Imperative.

789. An example of the imperative inflection is:

	active.			middle.		
	8.	d.	<b>p</b> .	<b>8</b> .	<u>a</u> .	P
1	भवानि	ਮਗਰ	भवाम	ਮੰਕੇ	শবাৰ্বন্ট	भवामके
	b <b>h</b> ávāni	bhávāva	bhávāma	b <b>há</b> vāi	bhávāva hāi	bhávā <b>mahāi</b>
2	ਮਕ	ਮਕਰਸ੍	ਮਕਨ	भवस्व	भवेषाम्	শব্ঘদ্
			bhávata		bhávethām	bhávadhvam
3	ਮਕਨ੍	भवताम्	भवत्	भवताम्	भवेताम्	भवत्ताम्
	bhávatu	bhávatām	भवतु bhávantu	bhávatām	bhávetām	bhávantām

740. The ending tana in 2d pl. act. is as rare in this whole conjugation as is thana in the present: the V. affords only bhajatana in the a-class (and nahyatana in the ya-class: 760). The ending tāt of 2d sing. act., on the other hand, is not rare; the RV. has avatāt, osatāt, dahatāt, bhavatāt, yachatāt, yācatāt, rákṣatāt, vahatāt; to which AV. adds jinvatāt, dhāvatāt; and the Brāhmanas bring other examples.

### 5. Present Participle.

741. The endings चत्त् ant and मान māna are added to the present-stem, with loss, before the former, of the final stem-vowel: thus, act. भवत्त् bhávant (fem. भवत्ती bhávanti); mid. भवमान bhávamāna.

#### **0.** Imperfect.

	742. An example of the imperfect inflection is:					
		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	р.	e.	d.	p
1	म्रभवम्	<b>ম</b> ਮवाव	म्रभवाम	ਸ਼ਮਕੇ	শ্বਮবাবহি	म्रभवामहि
	ábhavam	ábharāva	ábhavā <b>m</b> a	ábhave	ábhavāvahi	ábh <b>avām</b> ahi
2	ग्रभवस्	म्रभवतम्	म्रभवत	म्रभवद्यास्	म्रभवेषाम्	म्रभवधम्
	ábhavas			<i>ábhavath</i> ās	ábhavethām	ábhavadhvam
3	म्रभवत्	ग्रभवताम्	<b>ম্ব</b> মবন্	म्रभवत	ग्रभवेताम् abhavetām	ग्रभवत्त
	ábhavat	<i>ábhavatā</i> m	ábhavan 🔒	ábhavata	ábhavetām	ábhavanta

743. No forms in tana are made in this tense from any a-class. Exsmples of augmentless forms (which are not uncommon) are: cyávam, ávas, dáhas, bódhat, bhárat, cáran, náçan; bādhathūs, várdhata, çócanta. The subjunctively used forms of 2d and 3d sing. act. are more frequent than those of either of the more proper subjunctive persons.

#### Irregularities of the a-class.

744. A far larger number of roots form their presentsystem according to the *a*-class than according to any of the other classes: in the RV., they are about two hundred and forty (nearly two fifths of the whole body of roots); in the AV., about two hundred (nearly the same proportion); to tell precisely, or very nearly, how many they are in the later language is not possible (of the number "about a thousand", as usually stated, the greater part are fictitious: see 108a). Among them are no roots ending in long  $\bar{a}$  — except a few which make an *a*-stem in some anomalous way: below, 749a.

745. A few verbs have irregular vowel-changes in forming the present-stem: thus,

a. uh 'notice' has guna-strengthening (against 240): thus, ohate.

b. kpp (or krap), 'lament', on the contrary, remains unchanged: thus, kppate.

c. guh, 'hide', has prolongation instead of guna: thus, guhati.

**d.** kram, 'stride', lengthens its vowel in the active, but not in the middle: thus, krámati, krámate; klam, 'tire', is said to form klāmati etc., but hardly occurs; cam with the preposition  $\bar{a}$ , 'rinse the mouth', forms ácāmati.

e. In the later language are found occasional forms of this class from mrj, 'wipe'; and they show the same wrddhi (instead of guna) which belongs to the root in its more proper inflection (627): thus,  $m\bar{a}rjasva$ .

f. The grammarians give a number of roots in urv, which they declare to lengthen the u in the present-stem. Only three are found in (quite

limited) use, and they show no forms anywhere with short u. All appear to be of secondary formation from roots in r or ar. The root murch or murch, 'coagulate', has likewise only  $\bar{u}$  in quotable forms.

g. The onomatopoetic root sthiv, 'spew', is written by the grammarians as sthiv, and declared to lengthen its vowel in the present-system.

746. The roots dan; 'bite', ranj, 'color', sanj, 'hang', svanj, 'embrace', of which the nasal is in other parts of the conjugation not constant, lose it in the present-system: thus, dáçati etc.; sanj forms both sajati and sajjati (probably for sajyati, or for sasjati from sasajati); math or manth has mathati later. In general, as the present of this class is a strengthening formation, a root that has such a nasal anywhere has it here also.

747. The roots gam, 'go', and yam, 'furnish', make the present-stems gácha and yácha: thus, gáchāmi etc.: see 608.

748. The root sad, 'sit', forms sida (conjectured to be contracted from sisd for sisad): thus, sidāmi etc.

749. Transfers to this class from other classes are not rare, as has been already pointed out above, both throughout the present-system and in occasional forms. The most noticeable cases are the following:

**a.** The roots in  $\bar{a}$ ,  $sth\bar{a}$ , 'stand',  $p\bar{a}$ , 'drink', and  $ghr\bar{a}$ , 'smell', form the present-stems tistha ( $tisth\bar{a}mi$  etc.), piba or (later) piva ( $pib\bar{a}mi$  etc.), and jighra ( $jighr\bar{a}mi$  etc.); and, in the Veda,  $d\bar{a}$ , 'give', and  $dh\bar{a}$ , 'place', form sometimes ddda and dddha, han, 'slay', forms sometimes jighna, and hi, 'impel', forms jighya — all these by transfer from the reduplicating class: see 671—4.

b. Secondary root-forms like *inv*, *jinv*, *pinv*, from simpler roots of the *nu*-class, are either found alongside their originals, or have crowded these out of use: see 716.

750. On the other hand, the root dham or  $dhm\bar{a}$ , 'blow', forms its present-stem from the more original form of the root: thus, dhámati etc.

### VII. Accented *a*-class (sixth, *tud*-class).

751. The present-stem of this class has the accent on the class-sign  $\Im$   $\dot{\alpha}$ , and the root remains unstrengthened. In its whole inflection, it follows so closely the model of the preceding class, that to give the paradigm in full will be unnecessary (only for the subjunctive, all the forms found to occur will be instanced). 752. Example of inflection: root বিস্*viç*, 'enter'; stem, বিয় viçá:

#### 1. Present Indicative.

	activ	/8.			mid	ldle.	
	5.	d.	р.	8.	d.	р.	
1		विशावम् viçávas	विशामस् viçåmas		विशावरे viçtivahe	विशामके viçámahe	
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	

### 2. Present Subjunctive.

1	viçáni	viçáva	viçáma	viçāl	viçávahāi	viç <b>İmah</b> āi
2	fviçási viçás		viçấtha	∫viç <b>áse</b> ∖riçásūi	viçāí <b>the</b>	
	fvicáti vicát	viçātas	viçắ <b>n</b>	{vi¢đte {vi¢đtāi	viçāfle	viçántūi

A single example of the briefer 1st sing. act. is myked. The only forms in aithe and aite are pynathe and yuvafte.

### 3. Present Optative.

etc.

etc.

1	विशेयम्	বিহীব	विशेम	विशेय	विशेवकि	विशेमहि	

vicéyam vicéva vicéma vicéya vicévahi vicémahi

etc. etc. etc. etc.

The RV. has the ending tana once in tiretana 2d pl. act., and rata in jugerata 3d pl. mid.

### 4. Present Imperative.

The first persons having been given above as subjunctives, the second are added here:

2	विश	विशतम्	বিছান	विशस्व	विशेषाम्	विशधम्
	viçá	viçátam	viçáta	viçásva	viçéthām	viçádhvam
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

The ending tāt is found in RV. and AV. in mṛḍatāt, vṛhatāt, suvatāt; other examples are not infrequent in the Brāhmaņa language: thus, khidatāt, sṛjatāt.

### 5. Present Participle.

The active participle is विशत्त् viçánt; the middle is विशत्ता viçámāna.

The feminine of the active participle is usually made from the strong stem-form: thus, vicanti; but sometimes from the weak: thus, sincanti and sincati (RV. and AV.), tudanti and tudati (AV.): see above, 449 b.

#### 6. Imperfect.

## 1 म्रविशम् म्रविशाव म्रविशाम म्रविशे म्रविशावसि म्रविशामसि avicam avicāva avicāma avice avicāvahi avicāmahi

etc, etc. etc. etc. etc.

Examples of augmentless forms accented are syjás, syját, tiránta.

The *a*-aorist (846 ff.) is in general the equivalent, as regards its form, of an imperfect of this class.

### Irregularities of the $\dot{a}$ -class.

758. It is impossible to determine closely the limits of this class, partly because of the occurrence of forms unaccented, or in unaccentuated texts, which might belong either to it or to the preceding class, partly because its modes and imperfect are accordant in form with those of the *a*-aorist (below, chap. XI.), and their separation is not always practicable, and partly for other reasons. With considerable confidence may be reckoned as belonging to it about seventy roots : namely, ksi, yu 'join', ru 'roar', su (or sū) 'stir up',  $dh\bar{u}$ ,  $h\bar{u}$ , kr 'strew', gr 'swallow', tr, rikh or likh, sic, ich, vij, khid, vid 'find', vidh, ksip, lip, riph, diç, piç, riç, viç, iş, tviş, miş, muc, uch, ubj, tuj, ruj, khud, tud, nud, rud, lup, ubh, çubh, gur, jur, tur, bhur, sphur, jus, prus, rus, çus, uks, vrçc (or vraçc), rch, prch (or prach), rñj, srj, bhrjj (or bhrajj), mrd, prn, mrn, krt 'cut', crt, rd, trp, mrç, sprç, re 'push', krs 'plough', mrks, vrs, drh, vrh or brh. Some even of these have either only isolated or very rare occurrences of  $\dot{a}$ -forms. The roots ich, uch, and rch are reckoned as substitutes in the present-system for is 'wish', vas 'shine', and r 'go to' (608). Prn and mrn have been noticed above (781) as secondary roots from present-stems of the  $n\bar{a}$ -class (V.).

754. Certain peculiarities of this body of roots are very noticeable: it contains only one or two roots with long vowels, and none with long interior vowels; very few with final vowels; and none with a as radical vowel, except as this forms a combination with r, which is then reduced in the present-system, as in the weak forms generally, to r or some of the usual substitutes of r.

755. The roots in *i* and *u* and  $\overline{u}$  change those vowels into *iy* and *uv* before the class-sign: thus, *kşiyáti*, *suváti* (*sva* instead of *suva* occurs in AV.; and the Brāhmaņas have forms in *kşya* from *kşi*).

756. The three roots in r form the present-stems hird, girá, tirá, and they are sometimes written as kir etc.; and gur, jur, tur are really only varieties of gr, jr, tr; and blur and sphur are evidently related with other ar or r root-forms.

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757. Two other roots which are used only in middle forms, and in combination with the preposition  $\bar{a}$  (sometimes further combined), make the present-stems  $\bar{a}$ -drivá and  $\bar{a}$ -privá, and are reckoned as r or ar roots: dr, 'regard', and pr, 'be busy' (neither is found in  $\nabla$ .). It is a question whether they are more properly reckoned to this class or as passives; and the same question arises as to the stems mrivá and dhrivá, from the roots mr, 'die', and dhr, 'hold': see below, 773.

758. Although the present-stem of this class shows in general a weak form of the root, there are nevertheless a number of roots belonging to it which are strengthened by a penultimate nasal. Thus, the stem muñcá is made from  $\gamma$  muc, 'release'; siñcá from  $\gamma$  sic, 'sprinkle'; vindá from  $\gamma$  vid 'find'; krntá from  $\gamma$ krt 'cut'; piñcá from  $\gamma$  pic, 'adorn'; trmpá from  $\gamma$ trp, 'enjoy'; kumpá from  $\gamma$  lup, 'break'; limpá from  $\gamma$  is smear'; and occasional forms of the same character are met with from a few others, as tundá from  $\gamma$ tud, 'thrust': umbhá from  $\gamma$ ubh, 'hold'; brihá from  $\gamma$ brh 'strengthen'; drihá (beside driha) from  $\gamma$ drh, 'make firm'; cumbhá (beside cúmbha) from  $\gamma$ cubh, 'shine'. TS. has crnthat from  $\gamma$ crath (instead of crathnāt).

### VIII. Ya-class (fourth, div-class).

759. The present stem of this class adds  $\overline{a}$  ya to the accented but unstrengthened root. Its inflection is also precisely like that of the *a*-class, and may be presented in the same abbreviated form as that of the  $\dot{a}$ -class.

760. Example of inflection: root নকু nah, 'bind'; stem নক্ম náhya.

	1. Present Indicative.						
	1	^{8.} नव्यामि náhyāmi etc.	active. d. नन्धावस् náhyāvas etc.	_{p.} नक्यामस् náhyāmas _{etc.}	s. नको náhye etc.	^{middle.} d. नक्मावरे náhyāvahe etc.	^{p.} नञ्जामके náhyāmahe ^{etc.}
			2	. Present 8	Jubjuncti	ive.	
1	n	áhyāni		náhyūma	náhyāi	náhyāvahāi	náhyāmahūi
2	2	áhyāsi áhyās			náhyāsāi		náhyādhvāi
3	- 2	áhyāti Áhyāt	náhyātas	náhyān	<b>n</b> áhyātāi		náhyā <b>ntāi</b>

A 3d pl. mid. in antāi (jāyantāi) occurs once in TS.

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### 3. Present Optative.

t	नन्नोयम्	নন্মিৰ	नन्ग्रेम	नस्रोय	नस्रोवकि्	নন্মদক্ষি
	náhyeyam	náhyeva	náhyema	náhyeya	náhyevahi	náhyemahi
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

### 4. Present Imperative.

	₂ নন্ম	নন্মনদ্	নন্মন	नस्त्रस्व	নন্মঘাদ্	নকাঘদ্
	náhya	náhyatam	náhyata	náhyasva	náhyethầm	náhyad <b>hvam</b>
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
	Of the	ending tana,	RV. has	one example,	nahyatana;	the ending tat
is	found in	asyatāt, chya	tāt.			

### 5. Present Participle.

The active participle is नक्सन् náhyant (fem. नक्सनी náhyantā); the middle is नक्समान náhyamāna.

### 6. Imperfect.

) म्रनस्त्रम्	দ্মনক্ষাব	म्रनन्धाम	म्रनको	শ্বনন্মাবরি	ह म्रनन्धामकि	
ánahyam	ánahyāva	ánahyā <b>m</b> a	ánahye	<b>ánahyā</b> va	hi ánahyāmah	i
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	
					belonging to	the
present-system	present-system are gáyat, pácyat, pácyan, jáyathūs.					

### Irregularities of the ya-class.

761. The roots of the *ya*-class are more than a hundred in number. They may be grouped as follows:

a. Roots signifying a state of feeling, or a condition of mind or body. These are nearly half the whole class. They are (alphabetically) as follows: uc, 'be pleased'; kup, 'be angry'; krc, 'be lean'; klam, 'be weary'; krudh, 'be angry'; keam, 'be patient'; keudh, 'be hungry'; keubh. 'be agitated'; grdh, 'be greedy'; jas, 'be worn out': tam, 'be exhausted'; tus, 'be satisfied'; trp, 'be pleased'; trs, 'be thirsty'; tras, 'be alarmed'; dam, 'be submissive'; dus, 'be spoiled'; drp, 'be crazed'; druh, 'be hostile'; pus, 'be in good condition'; budh, 'be awake': bhram, 'be unsteady'; mad, 'be excited'; man, 'be minded'; muh, 'be confused'; mrs. 'be forgetful'; mrit, 'be in ill condition'; med, 'be fat'; yas, 'be ardent'; yudh, 'be hostile'; raj, 'be colored'; radh, 'be subject'; ran, 'be happy'; radh, 'be successful'; ris, 'be hurt'; rup, 'be in pain'; lubh, 'be lustful'; cam, 'be quiet': cuc, 'be in pain'; cus. 'be dry'; cram, 'be weary'; har, 'be gratified'; hrs, 'be excited': and we may perhaps add das, 'be deficient', and naç, 'be missing'. Some of these are of only early use, some only of later; and some have only sporadic forms of this class, made perhaps under the influence of the analogy of the others.

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b. Roots which have a more or less distinctly passive sense, and which are in part evident and in part presumable transfers from the passive or ud-class, with change of accent, and sometimes also with assumption of active endings. It is not possible to draw precisely the limits of the division, or determine in all cases where passive form and meaning pass into intransitive; but there are a number of clear cases, where in the older language the accent wavers and changes, and the others are to be judged by their analogy. Thus, mue forms múcyate once or twice, beside usual mucyáte, in RV. and AV.; and in the Brahmanas the former is the regular accent: and similar changes are found in other verbs: thus, ji or jyā, kai 'destroy', hā 'leave', pac, dr 'burst', chid, bhid. Cases closely analogous with these are myate etc. from Vmi or mi, 'lessen'; rícyate etc. from Vric, 'lesve'; víyate etc. from Vvi, 'impregnate';  $c\bar{i}yante$  from  $\gamma cy\bar{a}$ , 'coagulate';  $c\bar{i}syate$  etc. from  $\gamma c\bar{i}s$ , 'leave'; drhyasva from Vdrnh, 'make firm'; puryate etc. from Vpr, 'fill'; and lupyate, topyate, tiryate, klicyate, rdhyate, may be ranked along with them. Active forms are early made sporadically from some of these - thus, drhya (RV.), keiyati and püryati (TA.); and diryati, kliçyati, and other like cases, are found later. The AV. has jiryati, 'grows old' (later also jiryate); and CB. has aprusyat, 'was sprinkled'. And from the earliest period jayate etc., 'is born', is either altered passive or original ya-formation from  $\sqrt{j\bar{a}}$ , serving as complement to  $\sqrt{jan}$ , 'give birth'.

c. A small body of roots are either transitive, or not intransitive in a way that clearly connects them with either of the above classes: thus, as 'throw'; is 'send';  $tr\bar{a}$ , 'save'; nah, 'bind'; paç, 'see'; vyadh, 'split';  $s\bar{v}v$ , 'sew';  $d\bar{v}v$ , 'play'; tur, 'overcome' (RV., once); tan, 'thunder' (RV., once), rj, 'press on'; nrt, 'dance'; pad, 'go';  $v\bar{a}c$ , 'bleat';  $d\bar{i}$ , 'hover';  $r\bar{i}$ , 'flow';  $sr\bar{v}v$ , 'fail';  $cl\bar{s}q$ , 'hang on'; bhrac, 'fall'; sidh, 'succeed';  $d\bar{i}p$ , 'shine' (and perhaps das and naç are better classed here than under a).

**d.** A body of roots, of various meaning, and of somewhat questionable character and relations, which are by the native grammarians reckoned as ending with diphthongs: thus,

1. Roots reckoned as ending in  $\bar{a}i$  and belonging to the *a*-class: thus, gäyati from  $\sqrt{g\bar{a}i}$ . As these show abundantly (and in most cases exclusively)  $\bar{a}$ -forms outside the present-system, there seems no reason why they should not be regarded as  $\bar{a}$ -roots of the y*a*-class. They are:  $g\bar{a}$  'sing';  $gl\bar{a}$ , 'be wearied or disgusted';  $dhy\bar{a}$ , 'think';  $py\bar{a}$ , 'swell';  $ml\bar{a}$ , 'wither';  $r\bar{a}$ , 'bark';  $v\bar{a}$ , 'droop';  $cy\bar{a}$ , 'coagulate';  $cr\bar{a}$ , 'cook';  $sty\bar{a}$ , 'be coagulated'; and, in one or two sporadic forms,  $kg\bar{a}$ , 'burn';  $d\bar{a}$  'cleanse';  $st\bar{a}$ , 'be hidden';  $sph\bar{a}$ , 'be fat'.  $Tr\bar{a}$ , 'save', was given in the preceding division. Many of these are evident extensions of simpler roots with added  $\bar{a}$ . With them may be mentioned  $t\bar{a}y$ , 'extend' (compare pass.  $t\bar{a}yate$  from  $\gamma tan$ : 772), and  $c\bar{a}y$ , 'be shy or anxious' (which connects itself with uses of  $\gamma(ci)$ .

2. Roots reckoned as ending in e and belonging to the *a*-class: thus, *dháyati* from  $\gamma$ /*dhe*. These, too, have  $\bar{a}$ -forms, and sometimes  $\bar{i}$ -forms, outside the present-system, and must be regarded as  $\bar{a}$ -roots, either with  $\bar{a}$  weakened to *a* before the class-sign of this class, or with  $\bar{a}$  weakened to  $\bar{i}$  or *i* and inflected according to the *a*-class. They are:  $dk\bar{a}$ , 'suck';  $v\bar{u}$ , 'weave';  $vy\bar{a}$ , 'hide';  $kv\bar{a}$ , 'call' (one of the forms of  $\gamma/k\bar{u}$ ); and a late example or two are found from  $m\bar{a}$ , 'exchange'. With them may be mentioned day, 'share, sympathize, pity'; vyay, 'be wasted' (denom. of  $vyaya^2$ ); cay, 'visit with retribution' (probably a form of ci.

3. Roots artificially marked with a final o (108 c) and reckoned to this class, the radical vowel being declared dropped before the class-sign: thus, dysti from do. They have, as showing an accented ysi, no real right to be classed here at all, but seem more accordant in formation with the present-stems sra and kya, noticed under the preceding class (755). Outside these present-systems, they show  $\bar{a}$  and *i*-forms; and the ys in the only RV. occurrence, and in most of the AV. occurrences, is resolved into *is* — which in the true class-sign ys is the case only in very rare and purely sporadic instances. They might, then, perhaps be best viewed as  $\bar{a}$ -roots with  $\bar{a}$  weak-ened to *i*, and inflected by the  $\hat{a}$ -class, but without the usual conversion of *i* to iy (755). They are:  $d\bar{a}$  'eut',  $d\bar{a}$  'bind';  $c\bar{a}$ , 'sharpen';  $s\bar{a}$ , 'bind';  $ck\bar{a}$ , 'cut off'.

762. The ya-class is the only one thus far described which shows any tendency toward a restriction to a certain variety of meaning. In this tendency, as well as in the form of its sign, it appears related with the class of distinctly defined meaning which is next to be taken up — the passive, with  $y\dot{a}$ -sign. Though very far from being as widely used as the latter beside other present-systems, it is in no very small number of cases an intransitive conjugation by the side of a transitive of some other class.

763. The roots of this class ending in am lengthen their vowel in forming the present-stem: they are tam, dam, bhram (but bhramyāt also occurs, cam, cram, klam (hardly found in use), and keam (but ksamyate also): for example, câmyati, crâmyati.

764. The root mad has the same lengthening: thus, madyati.

765. The roots in iv — namely, div, siv, sriv (or criv) — are written by the grammarians with iv, and a similar lengthening in the present-system is prescribed for them.

They appear to be properly  $d\bar{u}u$  etc., since their vocalized final in other forms is always  $\bar{u}$ :  $d\bar{v}v$  is by this proved to have nothing to do with the assumed root div, 'shine', which changes to dyu (361 d): compare also the desiderative stem jujyūsa from  $\sqrt{j\bar{v}v}$  (1028 h).

766. From the roots  $j\gamma$  and  $t\gamma$  (also written as just and the or tust) come the stems jirya and tirya, and jurya and turya (the last two only in RV.); from  $p\gamma$  comes purpose.

767. The root vyadh is abbreviated to vidh: thus, vidhysti. And any root which in other forms has a penultimate nasal losse it here: thus, difuse from drinh or drh; bhrácya (also bhrícya) from bhranc or bhrac; vajys from rañj or raj.

### IX. Accented yá-class: Passive conjugation.

768. A certain form of present-stem, inflected with middle endings, is used only with a passive meaning, and is formed from all roots for which there is occasion to make a passive conjugation. Its sign is an accented  $\overline{u}$  yá added to the root: thus, इन्य hanyá from  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\overline{p}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{p}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{u}$ ,  $\overline{n}$ ,

769. The form of the root to which the passive-sign is added is (since the accent is on the sign) the weak one: thus, a penultimate nasal is dropped, and any abbreviation which is made in the weak forms of the perfect (794), in the aorist optative (922 b), or before *ta* of the passive participle (954), is made also in the passive present-system: thus, *ajyá* from  $\sqrt{anj}$ , badhyá from  $\sqrt{bandh}$ , ucyá from  $\sqrt{vac}$ , *ijyá* from  $\sqrt{yaj}$ .

770. On the other hand, a final vowel of a root is in general liable to the same changes as in other parts of the verbal system where it is followed by y: thus,

**a.** i and u final are lengthened: thus,  $m\bar{i}y\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma mi$ ;  $s\bar{u}y\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma su$ ;

**b.**  $\bar{a}$  final is usually changed to  $\bar{i}$ : thus,  $d\bar{i}y/a$  from  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ ;  $h\bar{i}y/a$  from  $\sqrt{h\bar{a}}$ ; but  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}y/a$  from  $\sqrt{j\bar{n}\bar{a}}$ ,  $khy\bar{a}y/a$  from  $\sqrt{khy\bar{a}}$ ;

c. r final is in general changed to ri: thus, kriyå from  $\gamma kr$ ; but if preceded by two consonants (and also, it is claimed, in the root r), it has instead the guna-strengthening: thus, smaryå from  $\gamma smr$ , staryå from  $\gamma str;$ . — and in those roots which show a change of r to ir and ur (so-called  $\bar{r}$ -verbs: see 242), that change is made here also, and the vowel is lengthened: thus,  $c\bar{r}ryå$  from  $\gamma cr$ ;  $p\bar{u}ryå$  from  $\gamma pr$ .

771. The inflection of the passive-stem is precisely like that of the other *a*-stems; it differs only in accent from that of the class last given. It may be here presented, therefore, in the same abbreviated form:

Example of inflection: root क् kr, 'make'; passivestem जिन्य krivá:

### 1. Present Indicative.



#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

The forms noticed as occurring in the older language are alone here instanced :

	5.	d.	<b>p</b> .
1	kriyāí		<b>kr</b> iyā́mahāi
2			kriyādhvāi
3	∫kriyáte \kriyátūi		k <del>r</del> iyá <b>n</b> tāi

The 3d pl. ending antāi is found once (ucyantāi, K.).

1

#### 3. Present Optative.

I	न्नियेय	न्नियेवरि	न्नियेमहिः
	kriyéya	kriyévahi	kriyémahi
	etc.	etc.	etc.

No forms of the passive optative chance to occur in RV. or AV.; they are found, however, in the Brähmanas.

#### 4. Present Imperative.

2	न्नियस्व	न्नियेषाम्	न्नियधम्
	kriyásra	kriyéthām	kriyádhvam
	etc.	etc.	etc.

### 5. Present Participle.

This is made with the suffix मान māna: thus, जियमाण krivámāņa.

In use, this participle is well distinguished from the other passive participle by its distinctively present meaning: thus, *krtá*, 'done'; but *kriyámāna*, 'in process of doing', or 'being done'.

# 6. Imperfect. 1 শ্বলিয় শ্বলিয়ানহি শ্বলিয়াদহি 6kriye 6kriyāvahi 6kriyāmahi etc. etc. etc.

The passive-sign is never resolved into ia in the Veda.

772. The roots tan and khan usually form their passives from parallel roots in  $\bar{a}$ : thus,  $t\bar{a}y \delta te$ ,  $kh\bar{a}y \delta te$  (but also tany $\delta te$ , khany $\delta te$ ). The corresponding form to  $\sqrt{jan}$ , namely  $j\bar{a}yate$  (above, 761 b), is apparently a transfer to the preceding class.

773. By their form, mriváte, 'he dies', and dhriváte, 'he maintains himself, is steadfast', are passives from the roots  $m_r$ , 'die', and  $dh_r$ , 'hold'; although neither is used in a proper passive sense, and  $m_r$  is not transitive except in the derivative form  $m_rn$  (above, 731). With them are to be compared the stems  $\bar{a}$ -drivá and  $\bar{a}$ -privá (above, 757), which may possibly be

peculiar adaptations of meaning of passives from the roots pr, 'fill', and dr, 'scatter'.

774. Instances are occasionally found in the later language of an apparent assumption of active instead of middle endings by passive persons of the present-system. Probably, however, these are rather to be regarded as examples of transfer to the *ya*-class, such as were considered above (761 b).

775. As was pointed out above (607), the formation and inflection of stems in dya (the tenth or *cur*-class of the Hindu grammarians) will be treated under the head of secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.), along with the intensive and desiderative formations, because, in all alike, the stem is not a present-stem merely, but has been extended also into other tense-systems.

### Uses of the Present and Imperfect.

776. The uses of the mode-forms of the present-system have been already briefly treated in the preceding chapter (572 ff.). The tense-uses of the two indicative tenses, present and imperfect, call here for only a word or two of explanation.

777. The present has, besides its strictly present use, the same side-uses which belong in general to the tense: namely, the expression of habitual action, of future action, and of past in lively narration.

a. Examples of future meaning are: abruvan hṛṣṭū gachāmo vayam api (MBh.), 'they said with gladness, "we will go too"'; agnir ūtmabhavam prūdūd yatra vāñchati nūiṣadhaḥ (MBh.), 'Agni gave his own presence wherever the Nishadhan should desire'.

b. Examples of past meaning are: úttarā sắr ádharaḥ putrá āsīd dắnuḥ çaye sahāvatsā nú dhenúḥ (RV.), 'the mother was over, the son under; there Dānu lies, like a cow with her calf'; prahasanti ca tām kecid abhyasūyanti cā 'pare akurvata dayām kecit (MBh.), 'some ridicule her, some revile her. some pitied her'; tato yasya vacanāt tatrā 'valambitās tam sarve tiraskurvanti (H.), 'thereupon they all fall to reprosching him by whose advice they had alighted there'.

778. In connection with certain particles, the present has rather more definitely the value of a past tense. Thus:

**a.** With purá, 'formerly': thus, saptarsin u ha sma vül purá rkshā ity ácakşate (ÇB.), 'the seven sages, namely, are of old called the bears'; tanmätram api cen mahyam na dadūti purā bhavān (MBh.), 'if you have never before given me even an stom'.

b. With the asseverative particle sma: thus, crúmeņa ha sma väť tád devá jayanti yád esām jáyyam ásá rsayaç ca (CB.), 'for, in truth, both gods and sages were wont to win by penance what was to be won'; āvistah kalinā dyūte jāyate sma nalas tadā (MBh.), 'then Nala, being possessed by Kali, was besten in play'.

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No example of this construction is found in either RV. or AV., or elsewhere in the metrical parts of the Veda. In the Brāhmanas, only habitual action is expressed by it (Delbrück). In all periods of the language, the use of *sma* with a verb as pure asseverative particle, with no effect on the tense-meaning, is very common; and the examples later are hardly to be distinguished from the present of lively narration — of which the whole construction is doubtless a form.

779. The imperfect has remained unchanged in value through the whole history of the language: it is the tense of narration; it expresses simple past time, without any other implication.

Compare what is said later (end of chap. X. and chap. XI.) as to the value of the other past tenses, the perfect and aorist.

# CHAPTER X.

## THE PERFECT-SYSTEM.

780. THE perfect-system in the later language, as has been seen above (585), consists only of an indicative tense and a participle — both of them in the two voices, active and middle.

In the oldest language, the perfect has also its modes and its augment-preterit, or pluperfect, or is not less full in its apparatus of forms than is the present-system.

781. The formation of the perfect is essentially alike in all verbs, differences among them being of only subordinate consequence, or having the character of irregularities. The characteristics of the formation are these:

a. a stem made by reduplication of the root;

b. a distinction between stronger and weaker forms of stem, the former being used (as in presents of the First conjugation) in the singular active, the latter in all other persons;

c. endings in some respects peculiar, unlike those of the present;

d. the frequent use, especially in the later language, of a union-vowel  $\mathbf{z}$  i between stem and endings.

X. PERFECT-SYSTEM.

782. Reduplication. In roots beginning with a consonant, the reduplication which forms the perfect-stem is of the same character with that which forms the presentstem of the reduplicating conjugation-class (II.: see 643) — but with this exception, that radical  $\Xi a$  and  $\Xi I \bar{a}$  and  $\Xi r$  (or  $\Xi I ar$ ) have only  $\Xi a$ , and never  $\xi i$ , as vowel of the reduplicating syllable: thus, from  $\gamma \P pr$ , 'fill', comes the present-stem  $\overline{\Pi \P pipr}$ , but the perfect-stem  $\overline{\Pi \P papr}$ ; from  $\gamma' \Pi$ , 'measure', comes the present-stem  $\overline{\Pi \Psi I mim\bar{a}}$ , but the perfect-stem  $\overline{\Pi \Psi I mam\bar{a}}$ ; and so on.

Irregularities of roots with initial consonants will be given below, 784.

783. For roots beginning with a vowel, the rules of reduplication are these:

a. A root with initial  $\Xi a$  before a single final consonant repeats the  $\Xi a$ , which then fuses with the radical vowel to  $\Xi I \bar{a}$  (throughout the whole inflection): thus,  $\Xi I \subseteq \bar{a}d$  from  $\sqrt{\Xi Z}$  ad; and in like manner  $\Xi I \subseteq \bar{a}j$ ,  $\Xi I = \bar{a}n$ ,  $\Xi I = \bar{a}h$ .

The root  $\overline{n}$  r forms likewise throughout  $\overline{n}$   $\overline{a}$  r (as if from  $\overline{n}$  ar).

b. A root with  $\xi$  i or  $\exists$  u before a single final consonant follows the same analogy, except in the strong forms (sing. act.), where the vowel of the radical syllable has guaga, becoming  $\overline{v}$  e or  $\overline{\mathfrak{Al}}$  o; before this, the reduplicating vowel maintains its independent form, and is separated from the radical syllable by its own semivowel: thus, from  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{A}}$ is comes  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  is in weak forms, but  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  if is strong; from  $\sqrt{\mathfrak{A}}$  uc, in like manner, come  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  uc and  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  and  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ 

The root z *i*, a single vowel, falls under this rule, and forms zz *iy* and zz *iye*.

c. Roots which begin with vowels long by nature or by position do not in general make a perfect-system, but use instead a periphrastic formation, in which the perfect tense

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of an auxiliary verb is added to the accusative of a verbal noun (see below, chap. XV.: 1070 ff.).

To this rule, however,  $\sqrt{ap}$  (probably originally ap: 1087 f) constitutes an exception, making the constant perfect-stem  $\bar{a}p$  (as if from ap: above, **a**).

For the peculiar reduplication  $\bar{a}n$ , belonging to certain roots with initial vowels, see below, 788.

784. A number of roots beginning with va and ending with a single consonant, which in various of their verbal forms and derivatives abbreviate the va to u, do it also in the perfect, and are treated like roots with initial u (above, 783 b), except that they retain the full form of root in the strong persons of the singular active. Thus, from  $\sqrt{vac}$  come  $\bar{u}c$  and uvac; from  $\sqrt{vas}$  come  $\bar{u}s$  and uvas; and so on.

The roots showing this abbreviation are vac, vad, vap, vaç, vas, vah; and  $v\bar{a}$ , 'weave' (so-called ve: 761d, 2), is said to follow the same rule.

A single root beginning with ya, namely yaj, 'offer', has the same contraction, forming the stems iyaj and ij.

785. A number of roots having ya after a first initial consonant take *i* (from the y) instead of a in the reduplicating syllable: thus, from  $\sqrt{vyac}$  comes vivyac; from  $\sqrt{py\bar{a}}$  comes pipyā.

These roots are vyac, vyath, vyadh, vy $\bar{a}$ ,  $jy\bar{a}$ ,  $py\bar{a}$ ; and, in the Veda, also tyaj, with cyu and dyu, which have the root-vowel u.

A single root with va is treated in the same way: namely srap, which forms suspap.

These roots are for the most part abbreviated in the weak forms: see below, 794.

786. A considerable number of roots have in the Veda a long vowel in their reduplication.

Thus, of roots reduplicating with  $\bar{a}$ : kan, k!p, gr 'wake', grdh, tan, trp, trs, dhr, dhrs, nam, mah, mrj, mrc, ran, radh, rabh, vak, van, vac, vas 'attack', vrj, vrt, vrdh, cad, sah, skambh. Some of these occur only in isolated cases; some have also forms with short vowel. Most are Vedic only; but  $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$  is common also in the Brähmana language, and is even found later. For  $j\bar{a}gr$ , see 1020 below.

Of roots reduplicating with  $\bar{i}$ : the so-called roots (676) d $\bar{i}$ d $\bar{k}\bar{i}$  and d $\bar{i}$ d $\bar{i}$ , which make the perfect from the same stem with the present: thus, d $\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ da,  $d\bar{i}$ da,  $d\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ ya; d $\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ ya; d $\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ yus (also d $\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ yus, d $\bar{i}$ d $d\bar{i}$ yus). But  $p\bar{i}p\bar{i}$  has pipye, pipyus, etc., with short i. In AV. occurs once  $j\bar{i}h\bar{i}da$ .

Of roots reduplicating with  $\bar{u}$ :  $j\bar{u}$  and  $c\bar{u}$  (or  $cv\bar{u}$ ).

787. A few roots beginning with the (derivative: 42) palatal mutes and aspiration show a reversion to the more original guttural in the radieat

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syllable after the reduplication: thus,  $\sqrt{ci}$  forms ciki;  $\sqrt{cit}$  forms cikit;  $\sqrt{ji}$  forms jigi;  $\sqrt{hi}$  forms jighi;  $\sqrt{han}$  forms jaghan (and the same reversions appear in other reduplicated forms of these roots). A root  $d\bar{a}$ , 'protect', is said by the grammarians to form digi: but neither root nor perfect is quotable.

788. A small number of roots with initial a or r (ar) show the anomalous reduplication  $\bar{a}n$  in the perfect.

Thus, in the Veda:

 $\gamma' a \tilde{n} j$  or a j, which forms the pres. and k t i (cl. III.), has the perfect  $\bar{a} n a j \ell$  etc. (with ana  $j \bar{a}$  and ana  $j y \bar{a} t$ );

 $\gamma'ac$ , 'attain' (from which comes once anacāmahāi), has the weak forms ānacma etc. (with opt. ānacyām), and the strong forms ānānca and ānāca — along with the regular  $\bar{a}ca$  etc.;

Vrdh (from which comes once rnadhat) has anydhe;

Vyc or arc has anycus and anyce;

Varh has (in TS.) anyhus;

 $an\bar{a}ha$  (RV., once) has been referred to a root ah, elsewhere unknown, and explained as of this formation; but with altogether doubtful propriety.

The later grammar, then, sets up the rule that roots beginning with a and ending with more than one consonant have  $\bar{a}n$  as their regular reduplication; and such perfects are taught from roots like *aks*, *arj*, and *añc* or *ac*; but the only other quotable forms appear to be  $\bar{a}narchat$  (MBh.) and  $\bar{a}narsat$  (TA.); which are accordingly reckoned as "pluperfects".

789. One or two individual cases of irregularity are the following:

**a.** The extremely common root  $bh\bar{u}$ , 'be', has the anomalous reduplication ba, forming the stem  $babh\bar{u}$ ; and, in the Veda,  $\sqrt{s\bar{u}}$  forms in like manner  $sas\bar{u}$ .

b. The root bby, 'bear', has in the Veda the anomalous reduplication *ja* (as also in intensive: 1002 b): but RV. has once also the regular babbre.

c. The root sthiv, 'spew', forms either tisthiv (CB. et al.) or tisthiv.

d. Vivakván (RV., once) is doubtless participle of  $\gamma$  vac, with irregular redublication (as in the present, **660**).

790. Absence of reduplication is met with in the following cases:

**a.** The root *vid* 'know' has, from the earliest period to the latest, a perfect without reduplication, but otherwise regularly made and inflected: thus, *véda*, *véttha*, etc., pple *vidváns*. It has the meaning of a present. The root *vid* 'find' forms the regular *vivéda*.

b. A few other apparently perfect forms lacking a reduplication are found in RV.: they are taksathus, yamátus, skambháthus and skambhus, nindima (for ninidima?), dhise and dhire (?  $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$ ), and vidré and arhire (? see 613. And AV. has cetatus. The participial words  $d\bar{u}_{c}va\dot{u}s$ , mīdhváns, sūhváns are common in the oldest language. c. One or two sporadic cases have been quoted from the later language: namely, *cansus* and *canstre* (MBh.).

791. For an anomalous case or two of reduplicated preposition, see below, 1087 f.

792. Strong and weak stem-forms. In the three persons of the singular active, the root-syllable is accented, and exhibits usually a stronger form than in the rest of the tense-inflection. The difference is effected partly by strengthening the root in the three persons referred to, partly by weakening it in the others, partly by doing both.

798. As regards the strengthening:

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a. A final vowel takes either the guņa or vŗddhi change in 1st sing. act., guņa in 2d, and vŗddhi in 3d: thus, from  $\gamma$ Ĥ bhī, 1st बिमे bibhé or बिमे bibhāi; 2d बिमे bibhé; 3d बिमे bibhāi; from  $\gamma$ क़ kṛ, 1st चक़ॖ cakár or चक़ा cakár, 2d चक़ cakár, 3d चक़ा cakár.

But the  $\bar{u}$  of  $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$  remains unchanged, and adds v before a vowel-ending: thus, babhúva etc.

b. Medial  $\exists a$  before a single final consonant follows the analogy of a final vowel, and is lengthened or vriddhied in the 3d. sing., and optionally in the first: thus, from  $\gamma \pi q$ tap, 1st  $\pi \pi q$  tatáp or  $\pi \pi \eta q$  tatáp, 2d  $\pi \pi q$  tatáp, 3d  $\pi \pi \eta q$ tatáp.

In the Veda, however, the weaker of the two forms allowed by these rules in the first person is almost exclusively in use: thus, 1st only bibháya, tatápa, 3d bibháya, tatápa. The only exceptions noticed are cakára and jagráha (doubtful reading) in AV.

c. A medial short vowel has in all three persons alike the guna-strengthening (where this is possible: 240): thus, from  $\sqrt{3}$  of druh comes उन्नोक् dudróh; from  $\sqrt{3}$  and view comes विवेघ vivéç; from  $\sqrt{3}$  and krt comes चकर्त्त cakárt.

d. These rules are said by the grammarians to apply to the 2d sing. always when it has simple *tha* as ending; if it has *itha* (below, **797**), the accent is allowed to fall on any one of the syllables of the word, and the root-syllable if unaccented has sometimes the weak form (namely, in contracted stems with e for medial a: below. **794 e**; and in certain other verbs: thus, *vivijithá*).

The earlier language, however, appears to afford no example of a 2d sing., whatever its ending, accented on any other than the radical syllable, or failing to conform to the rules of strengthening as given above (in a, b, c).

e. Sporadic instances of a strengthening in other than the singular persons are found in RV.: thus,  $yuyopim \Delta$ , viveçus. And the roots  $c_7$ ,  $p_7$ , and  $d_7$  'tear' are said by the grammarians to have the strong stem in the weak forms; and  $j_7$  'decay' to be allowed to do the same.

f. The root my has (as in the present-system: 627) vyddhi instead of guna in strong forms: thus, mamárja; and  $\gamma$ guh (also as in present: 745 c) has  $\bar{u}$  instead of o.

794. As regards the weakening in weak forms:

**a.** It has been seen above (783 b) that roots beginning with i or u fuse reduplicating and radical syllable together to  $\overline{i}$  or  $\overline{u}$  in the weak forms; and (784) that roots contracting va and ya to u or i in the reduplication do it also in the root in weak forms, the two elements here also coalescing to  $\overline{u}$  or  $\overline{i}$ .

b. A few roots having ya and va after a first initial consonant, and reduplicating from the semivowel (785), contract the ya and va to i and u: thus, vivic from  $\sqrt{vyac}$ , vividh from  $\sqrt{vyadh}$ , susup from  $\sqrt{svap}$ . The extended roots  $jy\bar{u}$ ,  $py\bar{u}$ ,  $vy\bar{u}$ ,  $cy\bar{u}$ ,  $hv\bar{u}$  show a similar apparent contraction, making their weak forms from the simpler roots ji,  $p\bar{i}$ ,  $v\bar{i}$ ,  $c\bar{u}$ ,  $h\bar{u}$ , while  $hv\bar{u}$ must and  $cv\bar{u}$  may get their strong forms also from the same (and it is questionable whether from the others strong forms occur).

c. The root grabh or grah (if it be written thus) contracts to grh, making the three forms of stem jagrah (1st and 2d sing. act.), jagrah (3d), and jagrh; but prach (if it be so written) remains unchanged throughout.

**d.** A number of roots having medial *a* between single consonants drop that vowel. These are, in the later language, gam, *khan*, *jan*, *han*, *ghas*: they form the weak stems *jagm*, *jakhn*, *jajn*, *jaghn* (compare 637), *jak*s (compare 640): but RV. has once *jajanús*.

In the old language are found in like manner mamnāthe and mamnāte from  $\gamma$  man; vavné from  $\gamma$  van; tatne, tatnise, tatnire from  $\gamma$  tan (beside tatane, and tate, as if from  $\gamma t \bar{u}$ ); paptima and paptús and paptiváns from  $\gamma$  pat (beside pet-forms; below, e); saccima and saccus, sacce and sacciré from  $\gamma$  sac.

e. Roots in general having medial a before a single final consonant, and beginning also with a single consonant that is repeated unchanged in the reduplication — that is, not an aspirate, a guttural mute, or h — contract their root and reduplication together into one syllable, having e as its vowel: thus, V sad forms the weak stem sed, V pac forms pec, V yam forms yem; and so on.

Certain roots not having the form here defined are declared by the grammarians to undergo the same contraction — most of them optionally;

and examples of them all are of rare occurrence (of one only, bhaj, quotable from the older language). They are as follows:  $r\bar{a}j$  (occurs in MBh.) and  $r\bar{a}dh$  (radh?), notwithstanding their long vowel; phan, phal, bhaj (occurs in RV. etc.), though their initial is changed in reduplication; trap, tras (occurs in MBh.), syam, svan, though they begin with more than one consonant; dambh (forming debh from the weaker dabh), though it ends with more than one; and bhram (occurs in KSS.), bhrāj, granth, cranth, svañj, in spite of more reasons than one to the contrary.

This contraction is allowed also in 2d sing. act. when the ending is *ithá*: thus, *tenitha* beside *tatantha* (but no examples are quotable from the older language).

The roots eac and dad (from  $d\bar{a}$ : 672) are said to reject the contraction: but no perfect forms of either appear to have been met with in use.

From  $\gamma$  ty (or tar) occurs terus (R.); and jerus from  $\gamma$  is authorized by the grammarians — both against the general analogy of roots in  $\gamma$ .

f. Roots ending in  $\bar{a}$  lose their  $\bar{a}$  before all endings beginning with a vowel, including those that assume the unionvowel *i* (796) — unless in the latter case it be preferable to regard the *i* as a weakened form of the  $\bar{a}$ .

795. Endings, and their union with the stem. The general scheme of endings of the perfect indicative has been already given (553); and it has also been pointed out (543) that roots ending in  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  have  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$   $\overline{\mathfrak{a}}\mathfrak{u}$  in 1st and 3d sing. active.

796. Those of the endings which begin with a consonant — namely *च* tha, *च* va, *म* ma in active; *से se*, वस्टे vahe, मन्हे mahe, *घे dhve*, *रे re* in middle — are very often, and in the later language usually, joined to the base with the help of an interposed union-vowel *z i*.

The union-vowel *i* is found widely used also in other parts of the general verbal system: namely, in the sibilant aorist, the futures, and the verbal nouns and adjectives (as also in other classes of derivative stems). In the later language, a certain degree of correspondence is seen among the different parts of the same verb, as regards their use or non-use of the connective; but this correspondence is not so close that general rules respecting it can be given with advantage; and it will be best to treat each formation by itself.

The perfect is the tense in which the use of *i* has established itself most widely and firmly in the later language.

797. The most important rules as to the use of  $\xi$  *i* in the later language are as follows:

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a. The 7 re of 3d pl. mid. has it always.

b. The other consonant-endings, except  $\overline{a}$  tha of 2d sing. act., take it in nearly all verbs.

But it is rejected throughout by eight verbs — namely  $k_r$  'make',  $bk_r$  'bear',  $s_r$  'go',  $v_r$  'choose', dru 'run', cru 'hear', stu 'praise', sru 'flow'; and it is allowably (not usually) rejected by some others, in general accordance with their usage in other formations.

c. In 2d sing. act., it is rejected not only by the eight verbs just given, but also by many others, ending in vowels or in consonants, which in other formations have no  $\xi$  *i*; but it is also taken by many verbs which reject it in other formations; — and it is optional in many verbs, including those in  $\exists I \bar{a}$  (of which the  $\exists I \bar{a}$  is lost when the ending is  $\exists I itha$ ), and most of those in  $\xi$  *i*,  $\hat{\xi}$  *i*, and  $\exists u$ .

The rules of the grammarians, especially as regards the use of *tha* or *itha*, run out into infinite detail, and are not wholly consistent with one another; and, as the forms are by no means frequent, it is not possible at present to criticise the statements made, and to tell how far they are founded on the facts of usage.

With this *i*, a final radical *i* or  $\overline{i}$  is not combined, but changed into *y* or *iy*. The  $\overline{u}$  of  $\gamma'bh\overline{u}$  becomes  $\overline{u}v$  throughout before a vowel.

798. In the older language, the usage is in part quite otherwise. Thus:

a. In the RV., the union-vowel *i* is taken by roots ending in consonants provided the last syllable of the stem is a heavy one, but not otherwise: thus, *ásitha*, *uvócitha*, *vivéditha*, but *tatántha* and *vivyáktha*; *ūcimá*, *paptima*, *sedima*, *yuyopimá*, but *jaganma* and *yuyujma*; *ūcisé*, *jajñisé*, *sasāhise*, but *vivitse* and *dadrksé*; *bubhujmáhe* and *çūçadmahe* etc. (no examples of *ivahe* or *imahe* chance to occur, nor any of either *idhve* or *dhve*); *ijiré*, *jajñiré*, *yetiré*, *tataksiré*, but *cākļpré*, *vividré*, *duduhré*, *pasprdhré*, *tatasré* (and so on : twenty-two forms). The only exception in RV. is véttha from  $\gamma$ vid, without *i* (in Br., also *āttha* from  $\gamma$ *ah*: below, **801** a). The other Vedic texts present nothing inconsistent with this rule, but in the Brāhmaņas 3d pl. forms in *ire* are made after light syllables also: thus, *sasrjire*, *bubudhire*.

b. In roots ending with a vowel, the early usage is more nearly like the later. Thus: for roots in  $\bar{a}$  the rule is the same (except that no 2d sing. in *itha* is met with), as *dadhimá*, *dadhisí*, *dadhidhcé*, *dadhiré* (the only persons with *i* quotable from RV. and AV.); — roots in *r* appear also to follow the later rule: as cakesé, papese, vavesé, vavemáhe, but dadhrise and jabhrise, and in 3d pl. mid. both cakeriré and dadhrire; —  $\gamma$ bhū has both babhútha (usually) and babhúvitha, but only babhūvimá (AV.). But there are found against the later rules, susuma, cicyuse, juhuré, and juhūré, without *i*: the instances are too few to found a rule upon.

799. The ending riré of 3d pl. mid. is found in RV. in six forms: namely, cikitrire, jagrbhriré, dadrire, bubhujriré, vividrire, sasyjrire; to which SV. adds duduhrire.

800. Examples of inflection. By way of illustration of the rules given above, may be given in full the perfect indicative inflection of the following verbs:

a. As example of the normal inflection of a root with tinal consonant, we take the root बुध budh, 'know': its strong form of perfect-stem is बुवोध bubodh; weak form, बुब्ध bubudh.

		active.			middle.	
	8.	d.	<b>p.</b>	8.	d.	<b>p.</b>
1	व्वोध	बुबुधिव	ब्व्धिम	व्व्घे	बुबुधिवके	बुबुधिमरु bubudhimahe
	bubód <b>ha</b>	bubudhivá	bubudh <b>im</b> á	bubudhé	bubudhiváhe	bubudhimáhe
2	व्वोधिष	बुबुधयुम् bubudháthus	व्ब्ध	व्व्धिषे	व्व्धाघे	ब्ब्धिघे
	bubó <b>dhitha</b>	bubudháthus	bubudhá	bubudhişé	bubudhäthe	bubudhidhvé
3	व्वोध	बुबुधतुम् 🗸			ब्ब्धाते	ब्बुधिरे
	bubódha	bubudhátus	bubudhús	bubudhé	bubudhåte	bubudhiré
	The asse	erted variety	of possible a	ccent in 2d	l sing. act. (a	.bove, 793d)
n	eeds to be	noted both in	this and in	the remain	ing paradigms	

b. As example of the normal inflection of a root with final *i* or *u*-vowel, we may take the root  $\neg 1$   $n\overline{i}$ , 'lead': its forms of stem are  $\neg \neg 1$  ninay or  $\neg \neg 1$  ninay, and  $\neg \neg 1$   $nin\overline{i}$ .

1	กิาน, กิาาน				~	निन्यिमके
	nináya, nináya	ninyivá	ninyimá	ninyé	ninyiváhe	ninyimáhe
2	નિનેત્ર, નિનયિથ	निन्ययुस्	নিন্য,	निन्यिषे	निन्यांचे	নিন্যিদ্ব
	ninétha, nináyitha	ninyáthus	ninyá	ninyişé	ninyäthe	ninyidhvé
3	নিনায	নিন্যন্ম	निन्युस्	निन्ये	निन्याते	निन्यिरे
	nináya	ninyátus	ninyús	ninyé	ninyäte	ninyiré

The root kri would make in weak forms cikriyivá, cikriyátus, cikriyát, etc.;  $\gamma bh\bar{u}$  makes babháva, babhávtha (V.) or babhávitha,

babhūvivá, babhūvís; babhūvé, babhūviré, etc.; other roots in  $\bar{u}$  or u change this to uv before the initial vowel of an ending.

o. As example of the inflection of a root ending in  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ , we may take  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ , 'give': its forms of stem are  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  and  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  and  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  dad (or  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  dad): see above, 794 f.

1	दरी	द्दिव	द्दिम	दरे	ददिवके	दर्दिमके
	dadāú	dadivá	dadims	dadé	dadiváhe	dadimáhe
2	द्दाय, द्दिय dadátha, dadithá	ददयुम्	दर	द्दिषे	ददाचे	ददिघे
	dadátha, dadithá	dadáthus	dadá	dadişé	dadathe	dadidhvé
8	दरी	<i>द</i> दतुम्	दडुस्	दरे	<i>द्</i> राते	दर्दिरे
	dadāri	dadátus	dadús	dadé	dadāte	dadiré
	The RV. has once	papra for	paprāú (s	nd jahá	for iahāú?).	

d. As example of a root with medial  $\exists a$  showing fusion of root and reduplication, resulting in medial  $\nabla e$ , in the weak forms (794 e), we may take  $\exists \neg tan$ , 'stretch': its forms of stem are  $\exists \neg tatan$  or  $\exists \neg tatan$ , and  $\exists \neg ten$ .

1	กกา, กกาา	तेनिव	तेनिम	तेने	तेनिवरु	तेनिमके
	tatána, tatána	tenivá	tenimá	tené	tenivá he	tenimá he
2	તતન્થ, તેનિથ	तेनषुस्	तेन	तेनिषे	तेनाघे	તે <b>નિ</b> ઘે
	tatántha, tenithá	tenáth <b>us</b>	tená	tenișé	tenäthe	tenidhvé
8	ิสสาค	तेनतुम्	तेनुम्	तेने	त्तेनाते	तेनिरे
	tatána	tenátus	tenús	tené	<b>ten</b> äte	teniré

The root jan, with the others which expel medial a in weak forms (794 d), makes jajántha or jajňithá, jajňivá, jajňús; jajňé, jajňimáhe, jajňiré; and so on.

e. As example of a root with initial  $\exists \ va$  contracted to  $\exists \ u$  in the reduplication, and contracted with the reduplication to  $\exists \ \overline{u}$  in weak forms (784), we may take  $\exists \ a \ cac$ , 'speak': its forms of stem are  $\exists \exists \ uvac$  or  $\exists \exists \ uvac$ , and  $\exists \ uvac$ .

-	उवच, उवाच	ऊचिव	জবিদ	ऊचे	ऊचिवरे	ऊचिमके
	uváca, uváca	ūcivá	ūcimá	ūcé	$ar{u}$ civáhe	ūcimáhe
2	उवक्य, उवचिय uváktha, uvácitha				ऊचाये ūcáthe	

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3 उवाच	ऊचतुम्	ऊच्मू	ऊचे	জ্বান	ऊचिरे
uváca		ūcús		ūcāte	ūciré

In like manner,  $\sqrt{yaj}$  forms iydja or iydja, iydstha or iydjitha; ijds, ijisds, and so on;  $\sqrt{uc}$  has uvoca and uvocitha in the strong forms, and all the rest like vac.

f. Of the four roots in  $\pi$  r mentioned at 797b, the first persons are made as follows:

Of the roots in  $\overline{n}$  r in general, the first persons are made as follows:

1 द्धर, द्धार द्धिव द्धिम द्धे द्धिवरु द्धिमहे dadhára.dadhára dadhrivá dadhrimá dadhré dadhriváhe dadhrimáhe

801. A few miscellaneous irregularities call still for notice :

**a.** The root ah, 'speak', occurs only in the perfect indicative, and only in the 3d persons of all numbers and in the 2d sing. and du., in active (and in 2d sing. the h is irregularly changed to t before the ending): thus,  $\bar{a}ttha$ ,  $\bar{a}ha$ ;  $\bar{a}hathus$ ,  $\bar{a}hatus$ ;  $\bar{a}hus$  (in V., only aha and  $\bar{a}hus$  are met with).

b. From  $\sqrt{v\bar{u}}$  'weave', the 3d pl. act.  $\bar{u}vus$  occurs in RV., and no other perfect form appears to have been met with in use. It is allowed by the grammarians to be inflected regularly as  $v\bar{u}$ ; and also as vay (the presentstem is vaya: 761d, 2), with contraction of va to u in weak forms; and further, in the weak forms, as simple u.

c. The root  $vy\bar{a}$ , 'hide', has in RV. the perfect-forms vivyathus and vivy $\ell$ , and no others appear to have been met with in use; the grammarians require the strong forms to be made from vyay, and the weak from  $v\bar{i}$ .

d. The root *i*, 'go', forms in RV. and AV. the 2d sing. act. *iyátha* beside the regular *iyétha*.

e. The AV. has once vāvydhėte (for -dháte), and once jaharus (for jahrus): both are perhaps false readings.

f. Persons of the perfect from the *ir*-forms of roots in changeable r (242) are *titirus* and *tistire* (both RV.); and they have corresponding participles.

g. The bastard root  $\bar{u}rnu$  (712) is said by the grammarians to make the perfect-stem  $\bar{u}rnunu$ .

h. The roots majj and nac are said to insert a nasal in the 2d sing.

active, when the ending is simple tha: thus, mamanktha, nananstha (also mamajjitha and necitha).

i. The anomalous ajagrabhāisam (AB. vi. 35) seems a formation on the perfect-stem (but perhaps for ajigrabhisan, desid.?).

#### Perfect Participle.

802. The ending of the active participle is वांस् vans (that is to say, in the strong forms: it is contracted to उच् us in the weakest, and replaced by वत् vat in the middle forms: see above, 458 ff.). It is added to the weak form of the perfect stem — as shown, for example, in the dual and plural of the active inflection of the given verb; and, mechanically, the weakest participle-stem is identical with the 3d pl. active. Thus, ब्रुघांस् bubudhvans, निनीवांस् ninīvans, चक्वांस् cakrvans.

803. If the weak form of the perfect stem is monosyllabic, the ending takes the union-vowel  $\xi$  *i* (which, however, disappears in the weakest cases): thus, तेनिवास *teniváns*, ऊचिवास *ūciváns*, जज्ञिवास *jajñiváns*, चारिवास *ādiváns* (from  $\sqrt{\Xi \xi}$  ad: 783a), and so on; दर्दिवास *dadiváns* and its like, from roots in चा  $\bar{a}$ , is to be reckoned in the one class or the other according as we view its  $\xi$  *i* as weakened rootvowel or as union-vowel (794 f).

But participles of which the perfect-stem is monosyllabic by absence of the reduplication do not take the union-vowel: thus, vidváns, and, in V.,  $d\bar{u}cváns$ ,  $m\bar{u}dhváns$ ,  $s\bar{u}hváns$ ; and RV. has also dadváns (AV. dadiváns and once  $dad\bar{u}váns$ ) from  $\gamma/d\bar{u}$  (or dad: 672) and AV. has viçiváns and varjivāns (in negative fem.  $\delta varjusi$ ).

**804.** Other Vedic irregularities calling for notice are few. The long vowel of the reduplication (786) appears in the participle as in the indicative: thus,  $v\bar{a}vrdhv\dot{a}ns$ ,  $s\bar{a}sahv\dot{a}ns$ ,  $j\bar{u}juv\dot{a}ns$ . RV. and AV. have sasav $\dot{a}ns$  from  $\gamma$ san or s $\bar{a}$ . RV. makes the participial forms of  $\gamma$ tr or tar from different modifications of the root: thus, titiv $\dot{a}ns$ , but tatar $\dot{a}sas$ . Respecting the occasional exchanges of strong and weak stem in inflection, see above, **462** c.

805. From roots gam and han the Veda makes the strong stems jaganväns (as to the n, see 212) and jaghanväns; the later language allows either these or the more regular jagmiväns and jaghniväns (the weakest stem-forms being everywhere jagmús and jaghnús).

806. From three roots, vid 'find', viç, and drç, the later language allows strong participle-stems to be made with the union-vowel, as well as in the regular manner without it: thus, viviçiváns or viviçváns. PB. has once cichidivāns.

807. The ending of the middle participle is āná. It is added to the weak form of perfect-stem, as this appears in the middle inflection: thus, बुवुधान bubudhāná, निन्यान ninyāná, ट्ट्रान dadāná, तेनान tenāná, जज्ञान jajñāná, उत्त्वान ūcāná.

In the Veda, the long reduplicating vowel is shown by many middle participles: thus, vāvrdhāná, vāvasāņá, dādrhāná, çūçuvāná, etc. RV. has çaçayāná from  $\gamma$ çī (with irregular guņa, as in the present-system: **629**); tistirāņá from  $\gamma$ st; and once, with māna, sasrmāņá from  $\gamma$ sr.

### Modes of the Perfect.

**808.** Modes of the perfect belong only to the Vedic language, and are even rarely found outside of the Rig-Veda.

To draw the line surely and distinctly between these and the mode-forms from other reduplicated tense-stems — the present-stem of class II., the reduplicated aorist, and the intensive — is not possible, since no criterion of form exists which does not in some cases fail, and since the general equivalence of modal forms from all stems (582), and the common use of the perfect as a present in the Veda (823), deprive us of a criterion of meaning. There can be no reasonable doubt, however, that a considerable body of forms are to be reckoned here: optatives like  $\bar{a}nacy\bar{a}m$  and  $babh\bar{u}y\bar{a}s$ and  $babh\bar{u}y\bar{a}t$ , imperatives like  $babh\bar{u}tu$ , subjunctives like jabhárat, show such distinctive characteristics of the perfect formation that by their analogy other similar words are confidently classed as belonging to the perfect.

809. The normal method of making such forms would appear to be as follows: from a reduplicated perfect-stem, as (for example) *mumuc*, an imperative would be made by simply appending, as usual, the imperative endings; the derived subjunctive mode-stem would be *mumóca* (accented after the analogy of the strong forms of the perfect indicative), and would take either primary or secondary endings; and the optative modestems would be *mumucyá* in the active, and *mumucī* (accent on personal endings) in the middle.

And the great majority of the forms in question (about three quarters) are made in these ways. Thus:

810. Examples of the regular subjunctive formation are :

a. with secondary endings, active: 2d sing., papráthas, māmáhas, pipráyas, bubodhas; 3d sing., jabhárat, sāsáhat, paspárçat, pipráyat, eikstus; 1st pl., tatánāma, çūcávāma; 3d pl., tatánan, papráthan (other persons do not occur). This is the largest class of cases.

b. with primary endings, active: here seem to belong only dadhárshati and vavártati: compare the formation with different accent below, 811 a.

c. of middle forms occur only the 3d sing. tatépate, cacémate, yuyójate, jujósate (SV.; RV. has jújosate); and the 3d pl. taténanta (and perhaps two or three others: below, 811 b, end).

811. But not a few subjunctives of other formation occur; thus:

a. with strengthened root-syllable, as above, but with accent on the reduplication (as in the majority of present-forms of the reduplicating class: above, 645). Here the forms with primary endings, active, preponderate, and are not very rare: for example, jújosasi, jújosati, jújosathas, jújosatha (other persons do not occur). With secondary endings, jújosas, jújosat, and jújosan are the forms that belong most distinctly here (since dádūças and súsūdas etc. are perhaps rather aorists). And there is no middle form but jújosate (RV.: see above, 810 c).

b. with unstrengthened root-syllable occur a small body of forms, which are apparently also accented on the reduplication (accented examples are found only in 3d pl. mid.): thus, active, for example, mumucas; vavytat, vividat, cūcuvat; the only middle forms are dadhysate, vāvytahate, 3d sing.; and cákramanta, dádhysanta, rúrucanta (with dadabhanta, paprathanta, māmahanta, jukuranta, which might also belong elsewhere: 810 c).

c. accented on the ending are vāvydhánta and cakypánta (which are rather to be called augmentless pluperfects).

As to forms with double mode-sign, or transfers to an a-conjugation, see below, 815.

812. Examples of the regular optative formation are:

a. in active: 1st sing., ānaçyām, jagamyām, papreyām, riricyām; 2d sing., vavrtyās, viviçyās, cucrūyás, babhūyās; 3d sing., jagamyāt, vavrtyāt, tutujyát, babhūyát; 2d du., jagamyātam, cucrūyátam; 1st pl., sāsahyāma, vavrtyāma, cūcuyāma; 3d pl., tatanyus, vavrtyus. The forms are quite numerous.

b. in middle, the forms are few: namely, 1st sing., vavrtīya; 2d sing., vāvrdhāthās, cakşamīthās; 3d sing., jagrasīta, vavrtīta, māmrjīta, cucucīta; 1st pl., vavrtīmahi. And sāsahīsthās and ririsīsta appear to furnish examples of precative optative forms.

There is no irregular mode of formation of perfect optatives. Individual irregularities are shown by certain forms: thus, cakriyās, papīyāt, cucrūyás and cucrūyátam, with treatment of the final as before the passive-sign yá (770); anajyāt with short initial; jakṣīyāt is anomalous; ririșes is the only form that shows a union-vowel a.

**813.** Of regular imperative forms, only a very small number are to be quoted: namely, active, *cikiddhi*, *mumugdhf*, *çuçugdhf*, and *piprihf*; *mumoktu* and *babhūtu*; *mumuktam* and *vavrktam*; *jujustana* and *vavrttana* (unless we

are to add mamaddhf, mamattu, mamáttana); — middle, vavytsva and vavytdhvam.

**S14.** As irregular imperatives may be reckoned several which show a union-vowel a, or have been transferred to an *a*-conjugation. Such are, in the active, mumócatam and jujosatam (2d du.), and mumócata (2d pl.); in the middle, piprúyasva (only one found with accent), and māmahasva, vāvrahasva, vāvrsasva (2d sing.), and māmahantām (3d pl.: probably to be accented -ásva and -ántām).

815. Such imperatives as these, taken in connection with some of the subjunctives given above (and a few of the "pluperfect" forms: below, 820), suggest as plausible the assumption of a double present-stem, with reduplication and added a (with which the desiderative stems would be comparable: below, chap. XIV.): for example, jujosa from Vjus, from which would come jújosasi etc. and jújosate (811 a) as indicative, jújosas etc. as subjunctively used augmentless imperfect, and jujoeatam as imperative. Most of the forms given above as subjunctives with primary ending lack a marked and constant subjunctive character, and would pass fairly well as indicatives. And it appears tolerably certain that from one root at least, vrdh, such a double stem is to be recognized; from vāvydha come readily vāvydhate, vāvydhánta, and from it alone can come regularly vavrdhasva, vavrdhéte (above, 801 e), and vavrdhati (once, RV.) - and, yet more, the participle vavrdhant (once, RV.: an isolated case): yet even here we have also vāvrdhīthās, not vāvrdhéthūs. To assume double present-stems, however, in all the cases would be highly implausible; it is better to recognize the formation as one begun, but not carried out.

Only one other subjunctive with double mode-sign — namely, pappcāsi — is found to set beside vāvrdhāti.

**S16.** Forms of different model are not very seldom made from the same root: for example, from  $\gamma$  muc, the subjunctives mumócas, múmocasi, and mumucas; from  $\gamma$  days, dadhársati and dadhrsate; from  $\gamma$  prī, the imperatives piprīhí and pipráyasva.

#### Pluperfect.

817. Of an augment-preterit from the perfect-stem, to which the name of pluperfect is given on the ground of its formation (though not of its meaning), the Veda presents a few examples; and one or two forms of the later language (mentioned above, 788, end) have also been referred to it.

There is something of the same difficulty in distinguishing the pluperfect as the perfect-modes from kindred reduplicated formations. Between it and the aorist, however, a difference of meaning helps to make a separation.

818. The normal pluperfect should show a strong stem in the singular active, and a weak one elsewhere — thus, mumoc and mumuc — with augment prefixed and secondary endings added (us in 3d pl. act., ata in 3d pl. mid.):

Of forms made according to this model, we have, in the active: 1st sing., ajagrabham and acacaksam (which, by its form, might be aorist: 880); 2d sing. ájagan; 3d sing., ajagan and aciket; 2d du., amumuktam; 2d pl. ajaganta, and ajagantana and ajabhartama (a strong form, as so often in this person: 558); 3d pl. (perhaps), amamandus and amamadus. To these may be added the augmentless cikétam and cakaram. In the middle, the 3d pl. acakriran and ajagmiran (with iran instead of ata), and the augmentless 2d sing. jugūrthās and surspitās, are the most regular forms to be found.

**S19.** Several forms from roots ending in consonants save the endings in 2d and 3d sing. act. by inserting an i (555 b): thus, *abubhojis*, *aviveçis*; *arirecit*, *ájagrabhīt* (*avāvarīt* and *avāvaçītām* are rather intensives); and the augmentless *jfhiris*is (accent?) and *dadharsīt* belong with them.

**820.** A few forms show a stem ending in a: they are, in the active: 3d sing., asasvajat, acakrat; in the middle: 3d sing., *ápiprata*; 2d du., *ápasprdhethām*; 3d pl., atiivisanta (which by its form might be aorist), *ádadphanta*; and cakradat, cakrpánta, vāvrdhánta, juhuranta, would perhaps be best classified here as augmentless forms (compare 811, above).

## Uses of the Perfect.

821. In the later language, the perfect is simply a preterit or past tense, equivalent to the imperfect, and interchangeable with it. Except as coming from a few often used verbs (especially  $\bar{a}ka$  and  $uv\bar{a}ca$ ), it is much more rarely employed than the imperfect.

**829.** In the Brähmana language, very nearly the same thing is true. In most Brähmanas, the imperfect is the usual tense of narration, and the perfect only occasional; in the Çatapatha Brähmana, the perfect is much more widely used.

823. In the Veda, the case is very different. The perfect is used as past tense in narration, but only rarely; sometimes also it has a true "perfect" sense, or signifies a completed past; but oftenest it has a value not distinguishable in point of time from the present. It is thus the equivalent of imperfect, aorist, and present; and it occurs coördinated with them all.

Examples are: of perfect with present, ná crāmyanti ná ví muñcanty éte váyo ná paptul (RV.), 'they weary not nor stop, they fly like birds'; sé 'd u rájā kṣayati carṣaṇānám arán ná nemíh pári tá babhūva (RV.), 'he in truth rules king of men; he embraces them all, as the wheel the spokes'; - of perfect with aorist, úpo ruruce yuvatír ná yósā... ábhūd ayníh samídhe mánuṣāṇām ákar jyótir bádhamānā támānsi (RV.), 'she is come beaming like a young maiden; Agni has appeared for the kindling of mortals; she hath made light, driving away the darkness'; - of perfect with imperfect, áhann áhim ánv apás tatarda (RV.), 'he slew the dragon, and penetrated to the waters'. This last combination is of constant occurrence in the later language.

# THE AORIST SYSTEMS.

824. UNDER the name of a orist are included (as was pointed out above, 532) three quite distinct formations, each of which has its sub-varieties : namely,

I. A SIMPLE-AORIST (equivalent to the Greek "second aorist"), analogous in all respects as to form and inflection with the imperfect. It has two varieties: 1. the rootaorist, with a tense-stem identical with the root (corresponding to an imperfect of the root-class, I.); 2. the a-aorist, with a tense-stem ending in  $\Xi \dot{a}$ , or with unionvowel  $\Xi a$  before the endings (corresponding to an imperfect of the  $\dot{a}$ -class, VII.).

II. 3. A REDUPLICATED AORIST, perhaps in origin identical with an imperfect of the reduplicating class (II.), but having come to be separated from it by marked peculiarities of form. It usually has a union-vowel  $\Xi a$  before the endings, or is inflected like an imperfect of one of the *a*-classes; but a few forms occur in the Veda without such vowel.

III. A SIBILANT-AORIST (corresponding to the Greek "first aorist"), having for its tense-sign a  $\mathbf{H}$  s added to the root, either directly or with a preceding auxiliary  $\mathbf{\xi} \mathbf{i}$ ; its endings are usually added immediately to the tense-sign, but in a small number of roots with a union-vowel  $\mathbf{\Xi} \mathbf{a}$ ; a very few roots also are increased by  $\mathbf{H}$  s for its formation; and according to these differences it falls into four varieties: namely, A. without union-vowel  $\mathbf{\Xi} \mathbf{a}$  before endings: 4. s-aorist, with  $\mathbf{H}$  s alone added to the root; 5. *is*-aorist, the same with interposed  $\mathbf{\xi} \mathbf{i}$ ; 6. sis-aorist, the same as the preceding with  $\mathbf{H}$  s added at the end of the root; B. with union-vowel  $\mathbf{\Xi} \mathbf{a}$ , 7. sa-aorist.

## XI. AORIST-SYSTEMS.

825. All these varieties are bound together and made into a single complex system by certain correspondences of form and meaning. Thus, in regard to form, they are all alike, in the indicative, augment-preterits to which there does not exist any corresponding present; in regard to meaning, although in the later or classical language they are simply preterits, exchangeable with imperfects and perfects, they all alike have in the older language the general value of a completed past or "perfect", translatable by 'have done' and the like.

**826.** The aorist-system is a formation of very infrequent occurrence in the classical Sanskrit (its forms are found, for example, only twenty-one times in the Nala, eight in the Hitopadeça, seven in Manu, six each in the Bhagavad-Gītā and Çakuntalā), and it possesses no participle, nor any modes (excepting in the prohibitive use of its augmentless forms: see 580; and the so-called precative: see 921 ff.); in the older language, on the other hand, it is quite common, and has the whole variety of modes belonging to the present, and sometimes participles. Its description, accordingly, must be given mainly as that of a part of the older language, with due notice of its restriction in later use.

827. In the RV., nearly half the roots occurring show aorist forms, of one or another class; in the AV., rather less than one third; and in the other texts of the older language comparatively few aorists occur which are not found in these two.

More than fifty roots, in RV. and AV. together, make aorist forms of more than one class (not taking into account the reduplicated or "causative" aorist); but no law appears to underlie this variety; of any relation such as is taught by the grammarians, between active of one class and middle of another as correlative, there is no trace discoverable.

Examples are: of classes 1 and 4, adhām and dhāsus from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ , ayuji and ayukşata from  $\sqrt{yuj}$ ; — of 1 and 5, agrabham and agrabhīsma from  $\sqrt{grabh}$ , mysthās and marsisthās from  $\sqrt{mys}$ ; — of 1 and 2, ārta and ārat from  $\sqrt{r}$ ; — of 2 and 4, avidam and avitsi from  $\sqrt{vid}$  (find', anijam and anāikstīt from  $\sqrt{nij}$ ; — of 2 and 5, sanéma and asānisam from  $\sqrt{san}$ ; — of 2 and 7, aruham and arukşat from  $\sqrt{ruh}$ ; — of 4 and 5, amatsus and amādisus from  $\sqrt{mad}$ ; — of 4 and 6, hāsmahi and hāsisus from  $\sqrt{h\bar{a}}$ ; of 1 and 2 and 4, atnata and atanat and atām from  $\sqrt{tan}$ ; — of 1 and 4 and 5, abudhran and abhutsi and bodhişat from  $\sqrt{budh}$ , astar and stysiya and astaris from  $\sqrt{str}$ . Often the second, or second and third, class is represented by only an isolated form or two.

# I. Simple Aorist.

828. This is, of the three principal divisions of aorist, the one least removed from the analogy of forms already explained; it is like an imperfect, of the root-class or of the  $\dot{a}$ class, without a corresponding present indicative, but with (more or less fragmentarily) all the other parts which go to make up a complete present-system.

### 1. Root-aorist.

829. This formation is in the later language limited to a few roots in  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$  and the root  $\underline{\mathcal{A}}$  bh $\overline{u}$ , and is allowed to be made in the active only, the middle using instead the s-aorist (4), or the is-aorist (5).

The roots in  $\overline{x}$  at take  $\overline{z}$  us as 3d pl. ending, and, as usual, lose their  $\overline{a}$  before it;  $\underline{H}$  bh $\overline{u}$  (as in the perfect: 798 a) retains its vowel unchanged throughout, inserting a v after it before the endings म्रम am and मन an of 1st sing. and 3d pl. Thus:

1	^{s.}	^{d.}	_{p.}	^{8.}	a	_{p.}
	म्रदाम्	म्रदाव	म्रद्राम	म्रभूवम्	म्रभूव	म्रभूम्
	adām	ádāva	ádāma	ábhūvam	ábhūra	ábhūma
2	म्रदाम्	म्रदातम्	म्रदात	म्रभूम्	म्रभूतम्	म्रभूत
	ádās	adātam	ádāta	abhūs	dbhūtam	abhūta
3	म्रदात्	म्रदाताम्	म्रडम्	म्रभूत्	म्रभूताम्	ਸ਼ਮ੍ਰਕ ਜ੍
	^{ádāt}	^{adātām}	^{ádus}	dbhūt	dbhūtām	dbhūvan

For the classical Sanskrit, this is the whole story.

830. In the Veda, these same roots are decidedly the most frequent and conspicuous representatives of the formation : especially the roots  $g\bar{a}$ ,  $d\bar{a}$ ,  $dh\bar{a}$ ,  $p\bar{a}$  'drink', sth\bar{a},  $bh\bar{u}$ ; while sporadic forms are made from jna, pra, sa, ha. As to their middle forms, see below, 834a.

Instead of abhuvam, RV. has twice abhuvam.

831. But acrists of the same class are also made from a number of roots in r, and a few in i and u (short or long) with, as required by the analogy of the tense with an imperfect of the root-class, guna-strengthening in the three persons of the singular.

Thus (in the active), from Vcru, acravam and acrot; from Vcri, acres and agret; from y/kr 'make', akaram and akar (for akars and akar-t); from

Whitney, Grammar.

vy 'enclose', *āvar* (585); and so *adar*, *astar*, *aspar*. Dual and plural forms are much less frequent than singular; but for the most part they also show an irregular strengthening of the root-vowel: thus (including augmentless forms), *akarma* and *akarta*, *vartam*, *epartam*, *ahema* and *ahetana*, *bhema*, *homa*, *acravan*; regular are only *avran*, *akran*, *ahyan*, *acriyan*, and *anitām*.

832. Further, from a few roots with medial (or initial) vowel capable of *guna*-strengthening, and having in general that strengthening only in the singular.

Thus, abhet (2d and 3d sing.) from  $\gamma$  bhid; amok (3d sing.) from  $\gamma$  muc; avart from  $\gamma$  vr; vark from  $\gamma$  vr; (AV. has once avrk); adarçam from  $\gamma$  dr;; and adr;can, avr;an, açvitan. But chedma, with guna, from  $\gamma$  chid.

833. Again, from a larger number of roots with *a* as radical vowel:

Of these, gam (with n for m when final or followed by m: 143, 212) is of decidedly most frequent occurrence, and shows the greatest variety of forms: thus, agamam, agan (2d and 3d sing.), agamma, aganta (strong form), agman. The other cases are akran from  $\sqrt{kram}$ ; atan from  $\sqrt{tan}$ ; askan from  $\sqrt{skand}$ ; ásrat from  $\sqrt{srans}$  (? VS.); dhak und daghma from  $\sqrt{dagh}$ ; āmat (585) and anastām from  $\sqrt{nac}$  (?); aksan (for agh-san, like agman) from  $\sqrt{ghas}$ ; and the 3d pll. in us, ákramus, kramus, ayamus, yamus, abādhus, dabhás, nŗtus (impf.?): mandús and taksus are perhaps rather to be reckoned as perfect forms without reduplication (780 b).

**834.** So far only active forms have been considered. In the middle, a considerable part of the forms are such as are held by the grammarians (881) to belong to the *s*-aorist, with omission of the *s*: they doubtless belong, however, mostly or altogether, here. Thus:

**a.** From roots ending in vowels, we have  $adhith\bar{a}s$  and adhita; aditaand adimahi (and adimahi from  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$  'cut');  $asthith\bar{a}s$  and asthita and  $\acute{asthiran}$ , forms of  $\bar{a}$ -roots ( $ar\bar{a}dhvam$  is doubtless for  $ar\bar{a}sdhvam$ ); — of r-roots, akri,  $akrith\bar{a}s$ , akrita, akrata;, avri,  $avrith\bar{a}s$ , avrita;  $\bar{a}rita$  (with augmentless arta),  $\bar{a}rata$ ;  $mrith\bar{a}s$ , amrita;  $dhrith\bar{a}s$ ;  $drith\bar{a}s$ ; asrita; asrita;  $g\bar{u}rta$ ; — of *i* and u roots, the only examples are ahvi (? AV., once) and acidhvam. The absence of any analogies whatever for the omission of a s in such forms, and the occurrence of avri and akri and akrata, show that their reference to the s-avrist is without sufficient reason.

b. As regards roots ending in consonants, the case is more questionable, since loss of s after a final consonant before  $th\bar{a}s$  and ta (and, of course, *dhvam*) would be in many cases required by euphonic rule (233). We find, however, such unmistakable middle inflection of the root-aorist as ayuji, ayukthās, ayukta, ayujmahi, ayugdhvam, áyujran; āsta and āçata; apadi (1st sing.) and apadmahi and apadran; amanmahi; aganmahi and agmata; atnata; ajani (1st sing.; and ajñata (3d pl.); from  $\sqrt{gam}$  are made agathās and agata, and from  $\sqrt{man}$ , amata, with treatment of the final like that of han in present inflection (637). The ending ran is especially frequent in

3d pl., being taken by a number of verbs which have no other person of this sorist: thus, agribhran, ásrgran, adreran, abudhran, ávriran, ajusran, akrpran, asprdhran, avasran, ávicran; and ram is found beside ran in ádreram, ábudhram, ásrgram,

c. From roots of which the final would combine with s to ks, it seems more probable that a rist-forms showing k (instead of s) before the ending belong to the root-sorist: such are amukthus (and amugdhvam), apykthus and aprkta, abhakta, avrkta, asakthās and asakta, rikthās, vikthās and vikta; áspasta, asrsta, mrsthūs would be the same in either case.

d. There remain, as cases of doubtful belonging: amatta, arabdha, asypta, atapthäs, chitthäs, patthäs, and nutthäs.

# Modes of the Root-aorist.

835. In subjunctive use, forms identical with the augmentless indicative of this agrist are much more frequent than the more proper subjunctives. Those to which no corresponding form with augment occurs have been given above; the others it is unnecessary to report in detail.

836. Of true subjunctives, the forms with primary endings are quite few. In the active, gani is the only example of 1st sing. (as to bhuvani, see below); of 3d sing. occur sthati, and dati and dhati, which are almost indicative in use; of dual persons, sthäthas, darçathas, çravathas and çrávatas. In the middle, 3d sing. idhate (? anomalous accent), 2d du. dhethe and dhaithe, and 1st pl. dhamahe.

Forms with secondary endings are, in the active, darcam; tardas, parcas, yámas; karat, garat, daghat, yamat, yodhat, çrávat, spárat, sághat; dárçan, garan, yaman. No middle forms are classifiable with confidence here.

The series bhuvam, bhúvas, bhúvat, bhúvan, and bhuvāni (compare abhuvam: 830, end), and the isolated cravat, are of doubtful belongings; with a different accent, they would seem to be of the next class; here, a guna-strengthening would be more regular (but note the absence of guna in the aorist indicative and the perfect of  $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ ).

837. As regards the optative, we have to distinguish between pure optatives and optatives with s inserted before the endings, or precatives.

Pure optative forms, both active and middle, are made from a number of roots. From roots in  $\bar{a}$  occur in the active, with change of  $\bar{a}$  to e before the y, deyām, dheyām and dheyus, stheyāma, and jñeyās (which might also be precative); in the middle, only simahi and dhimahi (which might be augmentless preterit, as adhimahi also occurs once, and adhitam once: but ydha shows nowhere else conversion of its  $\bar{a}$  to long  $\bar{i}$ ). From  $bh\bar{u}$ ,  $bh\bar{u}y\dot{ds}$  and bhūyāt (possible precatives), and bhūyāma. From roots in r, the middle forms arīta, murīya, vurīta. From roots ending in consonants, acyam and acyama and acyus act., and aciya and acimahi mid. (this optative is especially common in the older texts); vrjyām; mrdhyūs, sahyās, gamyās and gamyāt (possible precatives), and sāhyāma; indhīya, gmīya, rucīya, vasīya; idhīmahi, naçīmahi, nasīmahi, preīmahi, mudīmahi, yamīmahi. And rdhyām etc. and rdhimáhi belong perhaps here, instead of to a present-system (cl. I.). ١

XI. AORIST-SYSTEMS.

838. Precative optative forms of this agrist active are in the later language allowed to be made from every verb (922). In RV., however, they do not occur from a single root which does not show also other aorist forms of the same class. They are, indeed, of very limited use: thus, in 3d sing, act. (ending in  $-y\bar{a}s$  for  $-y\bar{a}st$ ), we find  $avy\bar{a}s$ ,  $acy\bar{a}s$ ,  $daghy\bar{a}s$ , bhūyas, yamyas, yūyas, vrijyas, crūyas, sahyas (RV. has no 3d sing. in -yat); and besides these and the 2d sing. in yās (given in the preceding paragraph), which might be of either formation, occur in the active only bhuyasam (beside bhūyāma) and kriyāsma, each once. In the middle, RV. furnishes the three forms grabhīsta, padīstā, mucīsta; nothing additional is found in any other text. From the AV. on, the active precative forms are more frequent than the pure optative (which are not wholly unknown, however); they are nowhere common, excepting as made from  $\gamma/bh\bar{u}$ ; and from no other root is anything like a complete series of persons quotable (only bhuyasva and bhuyastam being wanting; and these persons having no representative from any root). Including the cases already given, they have been noticed as made from about twenty roots, as follows: crūyāsam etc., kriyāsam etc., priyāsam, bhriyāsam, saghyāsam, bhrājyāsam, udyāsam etc. (Vvad), rdhyāsam etc., rādhyāsam etc., badhyāsam etc., trpyāsma, jīvyāsam, pusyāsam etc. AV. has once bhūyāstha, with primary ending, but it is doubtless a false reading (TB. has -sta in the corresponding passage). TS. has didyāsam, from the quasi-root didi (676).

839. Imperative forms of the root-aorist are not rare in the early language. In the middle, indeed, almost only the 2d sing. occurs: it is accented either regularly, on the ending, as krevá, dhisvá, yuksvá, or on the root, as mátsva, yáksva, vánsva, rásva, sáksva; mūsva is not found with accent; the 2d pl. is represented by krdhvam, vodhvam. In the active, all the persons (2d and 3d) are found in use; examples are: 2d sing., krdhl, grudhl, gadhi, yandhí, gahi, māhi, mogdhi; 3d sing., dātu, astu, sótu; 2d du., dātam, jitam, grutam, bhūtám, sprtám, gatam, riktám; 3d du., only gantām, vodhām; 2d pl., gātá, bhūtá, cruta, krta, gata, dhātana; 3d pl., only dhāntu, cruvantu. These are the most regular forms; but irregularities both as to accent and strengthening are not infrequent. Thus, strong forms in 2d du. and pl. are varktam, vartam; kárta, gánta, yanta, vartta, heta, cróta, sóta; and, with tana, kártana, gantana, yantana, sotana. Much more irregular are yódhi (instead of yuddhí) from yyudh, and bodhí from both ybudh and ybhū (instead of buddhi and bhudhi). A single form (3d sing.) in tat is found, namely castat.

As to 2d persons singular in *si* from the simple root used in an imperative sense, see above, **624**.

# Participles of the Root-aorist.

840. In the oldest language, of the RV., are found a number of participles which must be reckoned as belonging to this formation.

In the active, they are extremely few : namely kránt, sthánt, and bhidánt, and probably rdhánt. In the middle, they are much more numerous: examples are arāņá, idhāná, krāņá, jusāņá, drcāná, prcāná, bhiyāná, vrāņá, sprdhāná, hiyāná.

Such formations are extremely rare in the later Veda and in the Brähmana.

841. All together, the roots exhibiting in the older language forms which are with fair probability to be reckoned to the rootaorist-system are very nearly a hundred (more than ninety); about eighty of them make such forms in the RV.

### Passive Aorist third person singular.

842. A middle third person singular, of peculiar formation and prevailingly passive meaning, is made from many verbs in the older language, and has become a recognized part of the passive conjugation, being, according to the grammarians, to be substituted always for the regular third person of any aorist middle that is used in a passive sense.

843. This person is formed by adding  $\xi i$  to the root, which takes also the augment, and is usually strengthened.

The ending i belongs elsewhere only to the first person; and this third person apparently stands in the same relation to a first in i as do, in the middle voice, the regular 3d sing. perfect, and the frequent Vedic 3d sing. present, which are identical in form with their respective first persons. That a fuller ending has been lost off is extremely improbable; and hence, as an aorist formation from the simple root, this is most properly treated here, in connection with the ordinary root-aorist.

844. Before the ending  $\xi$  *i*, a final vowel, and usually also a medial  $\Xi$  *a* before a single consonant, have the *orddhi*strengthening; other medial vowels have the *guna*-strengthening if capable of it (240); after final  $\Xi I \bar{a}$  is added  $\overline{U} y$ .

Examples (all of them quotable from the older language) are: from roots ending in  $\bar{a}$ ,  $djn\bar{a}yi$ ,  $ddh\bar{a}yi$ ,  $dp\bar{a}yi$ ; in other vowels,  $dcr\bar{a}yi$ ,  $dst\bar{a}vi$ ,  $dh\bar{a}vi$ ,  $dk\bar{a}ri$ ,  $dst\bar{a}ri$ ; — from roots with medial *i*, *u*, *r*, aceti, dchedi, acesi, dbodhi, dmoci, dyoji, ddarci, asarji, varhi; from roots with medial a strengthened,  $ag\bar{a}mi$ ,  $dp\bar{a}di$ ,  $ay\bar{a}mi$ ,  $av\bar{a}ci$ ,  $v\bar{a}pi$ ,  $ds\bar{a}di$  (these are all the earlier cases): with a unchanged, only djani (and RV. has once jdni), and, in heavy syllables, dmyaksi, vandi, cansi; with medial  $\bar{a}$ ,  $dbhr\bar{a}ji$ ,  $dr\bar{a}dhi$ ; — from roots with initial vowel,  $\bar{a}rdhi$  (only case).

According to the grammarians, certain roots in am, and  $\gamma$  badh, retain the *a* unchanged: thus, *adami*, *abadhi*; and there are noted besides, from roots sometimes showing a nasal, *arambhi*, *aramdhi*, *ajambhi*, *abhañji* or *abhāji*, *alambhi* (always, with prepositions) or *alābhi*: **CB**. has asañji.

Augmentless forms, as in all other like cases, are met with, with either indicative or subjunctive value: examples (besides the two or three already given) are: dhấyi, crávi, bhāri, reci, védi, roci, júni, pádi, sádi, ardhi. The accent, when present, is always on the root-syllable.

845. These forms are made in RV. from forty roots, and all the other earlier texts combined add only about fifteen to the number; in the later language they are (like all the kinds of aorist) very rare. When they come from roots of neuter meaning, like gam, pad, sad,  $bhr\bar{a}j$ ,  $sa\tilde{n}j$ , etc., they have (like the so-called passive participle in ta: 952) a value equivalent to that of other middle forms; in a case or two (RV. vii. 73.3[?]; VS. xxviii. 15) they appear even to be used transitively.

# 2. The *a*-aorist.

846. This agrist is in the later language allowed to be made from a large number of roots (near a hundred). It is made in both voices, but is rare in the middle, most of the roots forming their middle according to the s-class (4) or the is-class (5).

Its closest analogy is with the imperfect of the  $\dot{a}$ -class (VII.); its inflection is the same with that in all particulars; and it takes in general a weak form of root — save the roots in  $\overline{n}$  r (three or four only), which have the guna-strengthening.

As example of inflection may be taken the root सिच् sic, 'pour': thus,

		active.			middle.	
	<b>S</b> .	d.	р.	<b>8</b> .	d.	р.
1	म्रसिचम्	म्रमिचाव	म्रसिचाम	म्रसिचे	म्रसिचाववि्	म्रसिचामव्हि
	ásicam `	ásicāva	ásicāma	ásice	ásicāvahi	ásicāmahi
2	म्रसिचस्	म्रसिचतम्	শ্বমিचন	म्रसिचयास्	म्रसिचेयाम्	ग्रतिचधम्
	ásicas	ásicatam	ásicata	<i>ásicath</i> ās	ásicethām	ásicadhvam
8	म्रमिचत्	म्रसिचताम्	ম্বনিचন্	म्रसिचत	म्रसिचेताम्	म्रसिचत
	<b>ás</b> icat	ásicatām	ásican `	ásicata	ásicetām `	ásicanta

847. The *a*-aorist makes in the RV. a small figure beside the rootaorist, being represented by less than half the latter's number of roots. It becomes, however, more common later (it is the only form of aorist which is made from more verbs in AV. than in RV.); and in Veda and Brāhmana together about seventy roots exhibit the formation more or less fully. Of these a large number (fully half) are of the type of the roots which make their presentsystem according to the  $\hat{a}$ -class (VII.), having a vowel capable of guna-strengthening before a final consonant (753): thus, with *i*, chid, bhid, nij, pis, ris, vid,  $1 \text{cis} (c\bar{us})$ , 2 cis, cvit, sic, sridh; — with u, krudh, ksudh, dus, dyut, druh, pus, budh, bhuj, muc, mus, yuj, rudh, muh, ruh, cuc; — with  $\mathbf{r}$ ,  $\mathbf{rdh}$ , kri, grdh, trp, trp, trh, drp, drc, mrs, vrj, vrt, vrdh, srp. A small number end in vowels: thus,  $\mathbf{r}$ ,  $\mathbf{kr}$ ,  $g\mathbf{r}$ ,  $\mathbf{sr}$  (which have the gume-strengthening throughout), hi (? ahyat once in AV.), stu (? stuvatām, 3d sing. impv. mid., once in AV.); and several in  $\bar{a}$ , apparent transfers from the root-class by the weakening of their  $\bar{a}$  to a: thus,  $khy\bar{a}$ ,  $hv\bar{a}$ ,  $vy\bar{a}$ ,  $cv\bar{a}$ , and (in RV. only)  $d\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$ . A few have a penultimate nasal in the present and elsewhere, which in this a orist is lost: thus, bhranc, srans, krand, manth, randh. Of less classifiable character are kram, gam, tam, cam, cram, tan, van, san, sad, rādh, dabh, sap,  $\bar{a}p$ ,  $\bar{i}r$ , das, cak. The anomalous  $\bar{a}stham$  is the aorist of as 'throw'. The roots pat, nac, vao form the tense-stems papta, neca, voca, of which the first is palpably and the other two are probably the result of reduplication; but the language has lost the sense of their being such, and makes other reduplicated arrists (3) from the same roots (see below, 854).

848. The inflection of this aorist is in general so regular that it will be sufficient to give only examples of its Vedic forms. We may take as model *avidam*, from  $\gamma/vid$  'find', of which the various persons and modes are more frequent and in fuller variety than those of any other verb. Only the forms actually quotable are instanced; those of which the examples found are from other verbs than *vid* are bracketed. Thus:

		active.		middle.			
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	p.	
1	ávidam	ávidāva	ávidāma	ávide	[ávidāvahi]	ávidā <b>mahi</b>	
2	ávidas		[avidata]	[åvidathūs]			
3	ávidat		ávidan	[avidata]	[avidetām]	ávida <b>nta</b>	

The middle forms are rare in the earlier language, as in the later: we have abve etc., akhye etc., avide (?) and avidanta, avocathūs and avocāvahi (and avidāmahe GB. and asicāmahe KB. are doubtless to be amended to mahi).

Augmentless forms, with indicative or subjunctive value, are not infrequent. Examples, showing accent on the tense-sign, according to the general analogies of the formation, are ruhám, srpas, bhujút, vidút, aratām, vocata, çakan; vidata (3d sing.), arāmahi, çisāmahi, vidúnta, budhánta, mrsanta (for exceptions as regards accent, see below, 853).

#### Modes of the *a*-aorist.

849. The subjunctive forms of this aorist are few; those which occur are instanced below, in the method which was followed for the indicative:

1	[vidáva]	vidāma	[vidā <b>mahe</b> ]
2 {vidási	vidāthas	vidātha	

, vidits

3 vidát

[vidātāi ?]

The ending thana is found once, in righthana. Of middle forms occur only  $c_{ig}\bar{a}t\bar{a}i$  (AV.: but doubtless misreading for  $c_{ig}\bar{a}t\bar{a}i$ ) and  $c_{ig}\bar{a}mahe$  (AV., for RV.  $c_{ig}\bar{a}mahi$ ). 850. The optatives are few in the oldest language, but become more frequent, and in the Brähmanas are not rare. Examples are: in active, vidéyam, sanéyam; vidés, games; gamet, vocet; gametam; çakéma, sanéma; vareta; in middle, (only) videya; gamemahi, vanemahi.

A single middle precative form occurs, namely videsta (AV., once); it is so isolated that how much may be inferred from it is very questionable.

**851.** A complete series of active imperative forms are made from  $\gamma$ sad (including sadatana, 2d pl.), and the middle sadantām. Other imperatives are very rare: namely, sára, ruha; ruhátam, vidátam; khyáta; and, in middle, stuvatām (?).

### Participles of the *a*-aorist.

852. The active participles trpánt, rudhánt, vrdhánt, cisánt, cucánt, huvánt, sávant, and (in participial compounds, 1309) kētant-, guhant-, vidant- (all RV.) are to be assigned with plausibility to this aorist.

Likewise the middle participles vrdhāná, sridhāná, huvāná; and perhaps also vipāná and cubhāná, although no personal forms corresponding to them occur.

### Irregularities of the *a*-aorist.

853. A few irregularities and peculiarities may be noticed here.

The roots in r, which (847) show a strengthening like that of the present of the sixth or unaccented *a*-class, have also the accent on the radical syllable, like that class: thus, from  $\sqrt{r}$ , *dranta* (augmentless 3d pl., sárat and sára. The root sad follows the same rule: thus, sádatam; and from  $\sqrt{san}$  are found sánas and sánat and sánema, beside sanéyam and sanéma. It is questionable whether these are not true analogues of the sixth-class (unaccented *a*-class) present-system. On the other hand, rúhat (beside ruhám, ruháta, ruhátam) and rísat (only accented form) are anomalies. From  $\sqrt{vac}$ , the optative is accented vocéyam, vocéma, vocéyus; elsewhere the accent is on the root-syllable: thus, vóce, vócati, vócanta.

854. The stem voc has in Vedic use well-nigh assumed the value of a root; its forms are very various and of frequent use, in RV. especially far outnumbering in occurrences all other forms from  $\sqrt{rac}$ . Besides those already given, we find vocā (1st sing. impv.) and vocāti, vocāvahāi; voces, voceya, vocemahi; vocatāt (2d sing.), vocatu, vocatam, vocata.

Of the stem nega from  $\gamma$  naç only negat occurs.

The root  $c\bar{as}$  (as in some of its present forms: 639) is weakened to *cis*, and makes *acisam*.

855. Isolated forms which have more or less completely the aspect of indicative presents are made from some roots beside the aorist-systems of the first two classes. It must be left for maturer research to determine how far they may be relics of original presents, and how far recent productions, made in the way of conversion of the aorist-stem to a root in value. **856.** The reduplicated aorist is different from the other forms of aorist in that it has come to be attached in almost all cases to the derivative (causative etc.) conjugation in  $\overline{\mathbf{AU}}$  *áya*, as the aorist of that conjugation, and is therefore liable to be made from all roots which have such a conjugation, beside the aorist or aorists which belong to their primary conjugation. Since, however, the connection of the two is no formal one (the aorist being made directly from the root, and not from the causative stem), but rather a matter of established association, owing to kinship of meaning, the formation and inflection of this kind of aorist is best treated here, along with the others.

857. Its characteristic is a reduplication of the radical syllable, by which it is assimilated, on the one hand, to the imperfect of the reduplicating class (II.), and, on the other hand, to the so-called pluperfect. But the aorist reduplication has taken on a quite peculiar character, with few traces left even in the Veda of a different condition which may have preceded this.

858. As regards, indeed, the consonant of the reduplication, it follows the general rules already given (590). And the quality of the reduplicated vowel is in general as in the formations already treated: it needs only to be noted that an *a*-vowel and *r* (or *ar*) are usually (for exceptions, see below, 860) repeated by an *i*-vowel — as they are, to a considerable extent, in the reduplicated present also (660).

But in regard to quantity, this aorist aims always at establishing a diversity between the reduplicating and radical syllables, making the one heavy and the other light. And the preference is very markedly for a heavy reduplication and a light root-syllable — which relation is brought about wherever the conditions allow. Thus:

858]

859. If the root is a light syllable (having a short vowel followed by a single consonant), the reduplication is made heavy.

And this, usually by lengthening the reduplicating vowel, with  $\bar{i}$  for radical *a* or *r* or *l* (in the single root containing that vowel): thus, arīriṣam, adūduṣam, ajījanam, avīvṛdham, acīkļpam. The great majority of aorists are of this form.

If, however, the root begins with two consonants, so that the reduplicating syllable will be heavy whatever the quantity of its vowel, the vowel remains short: thus, aciksipam, acukrudham, atitrasam, apisprçam.

860. If the root is a heavy syllable (having a long vowel, or a short before two consonants), the vowel of the reduplication is short: and, in this case  $\Xi a$  or  $\Xi I \bar{a}$ , and  $\Xi r$  (if it occurs), are reduplicated by  $\Xi a$ .

Thus  $adid\bar{\iota}ksam$ ,  $abubh\bar{\iota}sam$ , adadaksam,  $adadh\bar{\iota}vam$ , atatansam. And, in the rare cases in which a root both begins and ends with two consonants, both syllables are necessarily heavy, notwithstanding the short vowel in the former: thus, *apapraccham*, *acaskandam* (neither, apparently, found in use).

These acrists are not distinguishable in form from the so-called pluper-fects (817 ff.).

861. In order, however, to bring about the favored relation of heavy reduplication and light radical syllable, a heavy root is sometimes made light: either by shortening its vowel, as in avvaccam from  $\gamma v acceleright constraints of the synthesis of the synt$ 

In those cases in which (1047) an aorist is formed directly from a causal stem in  $\bar{a}p$ , the  $\bar{a}$  is abbreviated to *i*: thus, *atisthipam* etc., *ajijnipat*, *jihipas*, *ajijipata* (but VS. *ajijapata*); but from grap comes acicrapāma (CB.).

862. Examples of this aorist from roots with initial vowel are very rare; the older language has only  $\bar{a}mamat$  (or amamat) from  $\sqrt{am}$ , and arpipum (augmentless) from the causative stem arp of  $\sqrt{r}$  — in which latter the root is excessively abbreviated. The grammarians give other similar formations, as  $\bar{a}rcicam$  from  $\sqrt{arc}$ ,  $\bar{a}ubjijam$  from  $\sqrt{ubj}$ ,  $\bar{a}rjiham$  from  $\sqrt{arh}$ ,  $\bar{a}icikam$ from  $\sqrt{iks}$ ,  $\bar{a}rdidham$  from  $\sqrt{rdh}$ . Compare the similar reduplication in desiderative stems: 1029 b.

863. Of special irregularities may be mentioned :

From  $\gamma$  dyut is made adidyutam (taking its reduplicating vowel from the y instead of the u);  $\gamma$  plu makes apiplavam (CB. etc.).

Some verbs with radical a or r are by the grammarians allowed to reduplicate with either i ( $\bar{i}$ ) or a, or even with a only. Others are allowed either to retain or shorten a long root-vowel. Details are unnecessary, the whole formation being so rare, and the forms instanced having never been met with in use.

As to apaptam, avocam, and anecam, see above, 847.

864. The inflection of the reduplicated aorist is like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation: that is to say, it has the union-vowel  $\Xi a$  before the endings, with all the peculiarities which the presence of that vowel conditions. Thus, from  $\sqrt{\Xi \pi} jan$ , 'give birth':

active.				middle.			
	в.	d.	р.	8.	d.	р.	
	म्रज्ञीजनम्	म्रज्ञीजनाव	म्रजीजनाम	म्रज्ञीजने	ম্বরীরনাবহি	म्रज्ञीजनामकि	
1	ájī janam	ájijanāva	áji <del>j</del> anāma	áj ījane		djijanāma hi	
_	म्रज्ञीजनस्	म्रज्ञीजनतम्	म्रज्ञीजनत	म्रज्ञीजनवास्	म्रज्ञीजनेषाम्	สสโลกยमุ	
3	djijanas	áj ijanatam	ájījanata	ájījanathās	d <b>j</b> ījanethām	ájījanadhvam	
	મ્રज्ञीजनत	म्रज्ञीजनताम्	म्रज्ञीजनन्	म्रजीजनत	म्रज्ञीजनेताम्	म्रज्ञीजनत्त	
3		djījanatām			<b>`</b>	ájijananta	

865. The middle forms are quite rare in the older language (the 3d pl. is decidedly the most common of them, being made from eleven roots; the 3d s. from seven); but all are quotable except 1st and 2d du. — and of the 1st du. no active example occurs.

Atitape appears to be once used (RV.) as 3d sing., with passive sense.

**866.** A final r has the guna-strengthening before the endings: thus, apiparam, atitaras, adidharat, avivaran. Of similar strengthened forms from  $\bar{i}$  and u-roots are found apiprayan (TS.), abibhayanta (RV.), apiplavam (CB.), acucyavat (K.); of unstrengthened, a_fu_fruvat (GB.). Few roots ending in other vowels than rmake this aorist: see below, **868**.

867. Forms of the inflection without union-vowel are occasionally met with: namely, from roots ending in consonants, sigvap (2d sing., augmentless) from  $\gamma$  swap, and acienat from  $\gamma$  enath; from roots in  $\tau$  or ar, didhar (2d sing.), and ajīgar (2d and 3d sing.). Of 3d pl. in us are found almost only a form or two from *i* and u-roots, with guna before the ending: thus, acierayus, accurgavus, acueravus, asusavus (? AB.); but also abībhajus (CB.). And the 3d pl. mid. avaritran and avaritranta and asasygram seem to belong here rather than to the pluperfect.

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**868.** In the later language, a few roots are said by the grammarians to make this aorist as a part of their primary conjugation: they are cri and cvi, dru and sru, kam, and  $dh\bar{a}$  'suck' (cvi and  $dh\bar{a}$  optionally).

In the older language are found from  $\sqrt{cri}$  acicret and acicrayus (noticed in the preceding paragraph); from  $\sqrt{dru}$ , adudrot and adudruvat (TB.: not used as aorist); from  $\sqrt{sru}$ , asusrot and (augmentless) susros and susrot. Of forms analogous with these occur a number from roots in u or  $\bar{u}$ : thus, anūnot and nūnot from  $\sqrt{nu}$ ; yūyot from  $\sqrt{yu}$  'repel'; dūdhot from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$ ; apupot from  $\sqrt{p\bar{u}}$ ; tūtos and tūtot from  $\sqrt{tu}$ ; and one or two from roots in ior  $\bar{i}$ : thus, siget from  $\sqrt{si}$  (or  $s\bar{u}$ ) 'bind'; apipres (with apiprayan, noticed above) from  $\sqrt{pr\bar{i}}$  (and the "imperfects" from  $d\bar{d}h\bar{i}$  etc., 676, are of corresponding form). And from  $\sqrt{cyu}$  are made, with union-vowel  $\bar{i}$ , acucyavīt and acucyavītana. None of these forms possess a necessarily causative or a decidedly aoristic value, and it is very doubtful whether they should not all be assigned to the perfect-system.

#### Modes of the Reduplicated Aorist.

869. As in other preterit formations, the augmentless indicative persons of this aorist are used subjunctively, and they are very much more frequent than true subjunctives.

. Of the latter are found only *rīradhā* (1st sing.); *tītapūsi; cīkļpūti* and *sīşadhāti*, and *pispṛçati* (as if corresponding to an indicative *apispṛk*, like *açiçnat*); and perhaps the 1st sing. mid. *çaçvacūf*.

The augmentless indicative forms are accented in general on the reduplication: thus, didharas. ninaças; jijanat, piparat; jijanan; also sizvap; but, on the other hand, we have *cicráthas* and *cicnáthat*; and *dudrárat*, *cucrávat*, *tustávat* (which perhaps belong rather to the perfect: compare 810). According to the native grammarians, the accent rests either on the radical syllable or on the one that follows it.

870. Optative forms are even rarer. The least questionable case is the middle "precative" rivisista (rivisista has been ranked above with susahista, as a perfect: 812b). Cucyuvimahi and cucyavirata belong either here or to the perfect-system.

871. Of imperatives, we have the indubitable forms  $p\bar{u}purantu$  and *cicrathantu*. And *jiqrtám* and *jiqrtá*, and *didhrtam* and *didhrtá* (all RV. only), are doubtless to be referred hither, as corresponding to the indicatives (without union-vowel) *ajīgar* and *adīdhar*: their short reduplicating vowel and their accent assimilate them closely to the reduplicated imperfects (cl. II.), with which we are probably to regard this acrist as ultimately related.

872. No participle is found belonging to the reduplicated aorist.

873. The number of roots from which this aorist is met with in the earlier language is about ninety. In the classical Sanskrit it is very unusual; in the whole series of later texts mentioned above 826 it occurs only once. 877]

# III. Sibilant-Aorist.

874. The common tense-sign of all the varieties of this a orist is a  $\Pi s$  (convertible to  $\Pi s$ ) which is added to the root in forming the tense-stem.

This sibilant has no analogues among the class-signs of the presentsystem; but it is to be compared with that which appears (and likewise with or without the same union-vowel i) in the stems of the future tense-system (chap. XII.) and of the desiderative conjugation (chap. XIV.).

To the root thus increased the augment is prefixed and the secondary endings are added.

875. In the case of a few roots, the sibilant tensestem (always ending in  $\overline{a}$ , ks) is further increased by an  $\overline{a}$ , and the inflection is nearly like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation.

876. In the vast majority of cases, the sibilant is the final of the tense-stem, and the inflection is like that of an imperfect of the first general conjugation.

And these, again, fall into two nearly equal and strongly marked classes, according as the sibilant is added immediately to the final of the root, or with an auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i*, making the tense-sign  $\xi \Psi$  *is*. Finally, before this  $\xi \Psi$  *is* the root is in a very small number of cases increased by a  $\Psi$  *s*, making the whole addition  $\widehat{H\Psi}$  *sis*.

877. We have, then, the following classification for the varieties of sibilant-aorist:

A. With endings added directly to the sibilant:

4. with  $\exists s$  simply after the root: s-aorist;

5. with  $\xi$  i before the H s: is-aorist;

6. the same, with H s at end of root: sis-aorist.

B. With  $\overline{a}$  added to the sibilant before the endings:

7. with sibilant and  $\overline{a}$  : sa-aorist.

As regards the distinction between the fourth and fifth forms, it may be said in a general way that those roots incline to take the auxiliary *i* in the aorist which take it also in other formations; but it is impossible to lay down any strict rules as to this accordance, and also, considering the rarity of a rist-forms in the later language, practically quite useless to attempt the task. See below, 908.

# 4. The s-'aopist.

878. The tense-stem of this parist is made by adding  $\mathbf{H}$  s to the augmented root, of which also the vowel is usually strengthened.

879. The general rules as to the strengthening of the root-vowel are these:

b. A medial vowel has the orddhi-change in the active, and remains unaltered in the middle: thus, from  $\gamma$  हुन्दू chand, active stem म्रहान्स् achānts, middle stem म्रहान्स् achants; from  $\gamma$  रिघ् ric, म्रीत् arāiks and म्रस्ति ariks; from  $\gamma$  स्घ rudh, म्रीत्स् arāuts, and म्रस्त् aruts; from  $\gamma$  स्ज़ srj, म्रस्नात् asrāks and म्रस्त् asrks.

880. The endings are the usual secondary ones, with उस् us (not अन् an) in 3d pl. act., and अत ata (not अत्त anta in 3d pl. mid.

But before  $\mathbf{H}_s$  and  $\mathbf{n}_t$  of 2d and 3d sing. act. is in the later language always inserted an  $\mathbf{\xi}_{\bar{i}}$ , making the endings  $\mathbf{\xi}\mathbf{H}_{\bar{i}}\mathbf{s}$  and  $\mathbf{\xi}\mathbf{n}_{\bar{i}}\mathbf{t}$ .

This insertion is unknown in the earliest language (of the RV.): see below, 888.

**881.** Before endings beginning with t or th, the tensesign s is (233 b) omitted after the final consonant of a root unless this be r, or n or m (converted to anusvāra).

The same omission is of course made before *dhvam*, after either vowel or consonant; and the ending becomes *dhvam*, provided the sibilant, if retained, would have been s: thus, astodhvam and avridhvam (beside astosata and avriata), but arādhvam (beside arāsata. These three are the only test-cases for the form of the ending which have been noted in the older language, except didhvam ( $\gamma di$ ; 'regard': GB., once), which is to dithue (2d sing.) as avidhvam and avisata to avia and avithue.

According to the grammarians, the omission of s before t and th takes s place also after a short vowel (the case can occur only in the 2d and 3d sing. mid.); but we have seen above (834 a) that this is to be viewed rather as a substitution in those persons of the forms of the root-aorist. Neither in the earlier nor in the later language, however, does any example occur of an aorist-form with s retained after a short vowel before these endings.

882. As examples of the inflection of this variety of sibilant aorist we may take the roots  $\overline{n_i}$  rudh, 'obstruct', and  $\overline{n_i}$ , 'lead'. Thus:

		active.	-	_	middle.	-
1	म्रीत्सम् मरीत्सम्		<b>ग्र</b> ीत्स्म	म्रहतिस	म्र म्रहत्स्वहि	म्रहत्स्महि
	<i>árāutsam</i>	árāutsva	årāutsma	árutsi	árutsvahi	árutsmahi
2	म्ररीत्सीस्	मरीत्तम्	म्रहीत्त	म्रकृत्यास् árutthās	म्रकृत्साधाम्	ग्रह्युम्
	árāutsīs	árāut <b>t</b> am	árāutta	árutthās	árutsāthām	áruddhvam
3	ग्ररीत्सीत्	ग्ररीत्ताम्	म्ररीत्मुस्	म्रहत	म्रोहत्साताम् árutsātām	म्रहत्मत
	árāutsīt	árāuttā <b>m</b>	árāu <b>tsus</b>	årutta	árutsātām	árutsata
1	৸নীযদ্	য়৾৾ঀ৾৾য়	म्रीष्म	म्रनेषि	म्रनेष्ठहि	म्रनेष्महि
	ánāişa <b>m</b>	ánāisva	ánāis <b>ma</b>	ánesi	áneșvahi	áne <b>şm</b> ahi
2	<b>ग्र</b> नैषीस्	য়৾৾ঀ৾৾ড়৸্	য়৾৾ঀ৾৾ঢ়			
	ánāisīs	ánāistam	dnāista	ánesthās	áneşāthām	ánedhcam
3	શ્રંનેષોત્	য়৾৾ঀ৾৾ঢ়য়৸	म्रनैषुप्त्	ম্বনিষ্ঠ	म्रनेषाताम्	म्रनेषत
	ánāisīt 🕺	<b>ánāi</b> stām	anāisus	<b>án</b> esta	ánesätäm	ánesata

**883.** The omission of s in the active forms is a case of very rare occurrence. In the older language have been noted only *achāntta* (RV.; written *achānta*, by **231**), *abhākta* (AB.), and the augmentless *tāptam* and *çāpta* (repeatedly in the Brāhmanas). The middle forms with omission are indistinguishable from the corresponding ones of the root-aorist; and whether, in the older language, a given form is to be assigned to the one aorist or to the other is a question difficult to settle. Above (**834**b-d) were given all the older forms of belongings thus questionable.

884. Certain roots in  $\bar{a}$  weaken the  $\bar{a}$  in middle inflection to *i* (as also in the root-aorist: above, 834a): these are said to be *sthā*,  $d\bar{a}$  ( $d\bar{a}$  'give', and  $d\bar{a}$  'cut' and 'share'), and  $dh\bar{a}$  ( $dh\bar{a}$ 'put', and  $dh\bar{a}$  'suck'); in the older language have been noted only ádişi and adişata (from  $d\bar{a}$  'give') and asthişata. TA. has  $ag\bar{s}_{a}$  at from  $\gamma g\bar{a}$  'sing'.

The middle inflection of the aorist of  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$  would be, then,

according to the grammarians; ádisi, ádithās, ádita; ádisvahi, ádisāthām, ádisātām; ádismahi, ádidhvam, ádisata.

**885.** Roots ending in changeable r (so-called roots in  $\bar{r}$ : **242**) are said by the grammarians to convert this vowel to  $\bar{i}r$  in middle forms: thus, *astirși*, *astirși*,  $\bar{i}r$ , etc. (from  $\gamma$ st $\bar{r}$ ): hardly any such forms, however, have been found in the older language (only *akīrṣata*, PB.; and, on the contrary, *astṛṣi* occurs once, AB.).

886. The s-aorist is made in the older language from somewhat over a hundred roots (in RV., from about seventy; in AV., from about fifty, of which fifteen are additional to those in RV.; and the other texts add about twenty more — not counting in any case those of which the forms may be from the rootaorist). It has there certain peculiarities of stem-formation and inflection, and also the full series of modes — of which the optative middle is retained also in the later language as "precative".

887. Irregularities of stem-formation are:

**a.** The roots hū, dhū, and nū have  $\overline{u}$  instead of o in the middle: thus, ahūsata, adhūsata, anūsi and anūsūtām and anūsata;  $\gamma$  dhur (or dhūro) makes adhūrsata.

b. From  $\gamma$  mad occurs amatsus (RV., once), with unstrengthened vowel.

c. From  $\gamma$  gam occurs agasmahi, apparently for agansmahi (compare masiya, below, 895).

**888.** The principal peculiarity of the older language in regard to inflection is the frequent absence of  $\bar{\imath}$  in the endings of 2d and 3d sing. act., and the consequent loss of the consonantending, and sometimes of root-finals (150). The forms without  $\bar{\imath}$  are the only ones found in RV. and K., and they outnumber the others in AV. and TS.; in the Brāhmanas they grow rarer (only one, *adrāk*, occurs in GB. and CB.; PB. has none).

**889.** If the root ends in a vowel, only the consonant of the ending is necessarily lost: thus, *aprās* (for both *aprās-s* and *aprās-t*) from  $\gamma pr\bar{a}$ : and in like manner *ahās* from  $\gamma h\bar{a}$ ; — *ajāis* (for *ajāis-t*) from  $\gamma ji$ ; and in like manner *acāis* from  $\gamma ci$ , and *nāis* (augmentless) from  $\gamma n\bar{i}$ ; — and yāus (for *ayāus-t*) from  $\gamma yu$ .

But (as in other like cases: 555) in 3d sing. the ending t is sometimes preserved at the expense of the tense-sign; and we have  $aj\bar{a}it$  (beside  $aj\bar{a}is$ and  $aj\bar{a}i\bar{s}it$ ) from  $\gamma ji$ ; and in like manner  $ac\bar{a}it$ ,  $acr\bar{a}it$ ,  $ah\bar{a}it$ ,  $n\bar{a}it$ : no examples have been noted except from roots in i and  $\bar{i}$ .

**890.** If the root (in either its simple or strengthened form) ends in a consonant, the tense-sign is lost with the ending. Thus,  $abh\bar{a}r$  (for  $abh\bar{a}rst$ : beside  $abh\bar{a}rst$ ,  bhr, abhr

abhāk from  $\gamma$ bhaj, adrāk from  $\gamma$ drç, adhāk from  $\gamma$ dah; but, with a different change of the final, ayāț from  $\gamma$ yaj, aprāț from  $\gamma$ prch, and avāț from  $\gamma$ vah; and (above, 148) srās appears to stand twice in AV. for srāş-t from  $\gamma$ erj: RV. has also twice ayās from  $\gamma$ yaj. Further, from roots ending in a nasal, atān from  $\gamma$ tan, khān from  $\gamma$ khan, ayān and anān from  $\gamma\gamma$ yam and nam (143).

If, again, the root ends in a double consonant, the latter of the two is lost along with tense-sign and ending: thus, achān (for achānis-t; beside achānita and achānisus) from  $\gamma$  chand; and other like cases are akrān, askān, and asyān.

A relie of this peculiarity of the older inflection has been preserved to the later language in the 2d sing.  $bh\bar{a}is$ , from  $\gamma bh\bar{s}$ .

**891.** Irregularities of inflection do not occur further: avegam from  $\gamma v \bar{v}$  is too great an anomaly to be accepted.

#### Modes of the s-aorist.

**892.** The indicative forms without augment are used in a subjunctive sense, especially after  $m\dot{a}$  prohibitive, and are not uncommon. Examples with accent, however, are extremely rare; there has been noted only  $v\dot{a}nsi$ , middle; judging from this, the tone would be found on the radical syllable. According to the Hindu grammarians, it may be laid on either root or ending.

**893.** Proper subjunctive forms are not rare in RV., but are markedly less common in the later Vedic texts, and very seldom met with in the Brāhmanas. They are regularly made with guma-strengthening of the radical vowel, in both active and middle, and with accent on the root.

The forms with primary endings are: in active, stosāņi; darşasi; nteşati, parşati, pāsati, matsati, yoşati, vakşati, sakşati; dāsathas, dhāsathas, pārşathas, vakşathas, varşathas; pāsatas, yarhsatas, yakşatas, vakşatas; dhāsatha, neşatha, párşatha, mátsatha; — in middle, narhsāi, maršāi; márksase; kranhsate, trāsate, darşate, márksate, yakşate, rāsate, varksate, sākşate, hāsate; trāsāthe (not trāsāițhe, as we should rather expect); nárhsarie, mârksante: and, with the fuller ending in 3d sing., másātāi.

The forms with secondary endings are (active only): jéşas, vákşas; dárşat, néşat, pákşat, yákşat, yóşat, vánsat, vákşat, véşat, sátsat, chantsat, etc. (14 others); yakşatām; stoşāma; parşan, yamsan, yoşan, rásan, vakşan, séşan, çróşan. Of these, yakşat and vakşat are found not rarely in the Brāhmaņas; any others, hardly more than sporadically.

894. Of irregularities are to be noted the following:

a. The forms drksase and prksase (2d sing. mid.) lack the guna-strengthening.

b. Jesam, stosam, and yosam (AV. yūsam, with ū for o as in anūsdid Whitney, Grammar.

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etc.) appear to be first persons formed under government of the analogy of the second and third — unless they are relics of a state of things anterior to the *orddhi*-strengthening: in which case *jeşma* is to be compared with them (we should expect *jāişma* or *jeşāma*).

c. From roots in  $\bar{a}$  are made a few forms of problematic character: namely, yeşam (only case in RV.), khyeşam, jñeşam, geşam and geşma, deşma, stheşam and stheşus. Their value is optative. The analogy of jeşam and jeşma suggests the possibility of their derivation from *i*-forms of the  $\bar{a}$ -roots; or the sibilant might be of a precative character (thus,  $y\bar{a}$ -*i*-*s*-*am*). That they are to be reckoned to the *is*-aorist appears highly improbable.

d. The RV. has a few difficult first persons middle in se, which are perhaps best noted here. They are: 1. from the simple root, krse, hise (and ohise?), stusé; 2. from present-stems, arcase, rhjase, yajase, gäyise, grnīsé and punīsé. They have the value of indicative present. Compare below, 897.

895. Optative forms of this aorist are made in the middle only, and they have in 2d and 3d sing. always the precative s before the endings. Those found to occur in the older language are: disīya, dhisīya, bhaksīyá, masīya (for mańsīya), muksīya, rāsīya, sāksīya, strisīya; mańsīsthūs; darsīsta, bhaksīsta, mańsīsta, mrksīsta; bhaksīmahi, dhuksīmáhi, mańsīmáhi, vańsīmáhi, saksīmáhi; mańsīrata. PB. has bhuksisīya, which should belong to a sis-aorist. The RV. form trásīthām (for trāsīyāthām or trāsāthām) is an isolated anomaly.

This optative makes a part of the accepted "precative" of the later language: see below, 921 ff.

**896.** Imperative persons from this aorist are extremely rare: we find only the 2d sing. act. *nesa* and *parsa* (both from *a*-stems, and showing rather, therefore, a treatment of the aorist-stem as a root), and the 3d sing. mid.  $r\bar{a}sat\bar{a}m$  and pl.  $r\bar{a}sant\bar{a}m$  (of which the same may be said).

### Participles of the s-Aorist.

897. Active participles are dáksat or dháksat, and sáksat (both RV.).

If rňjase (above, 894 d) is to be reckoned as an s-aorist form, rňjasāná is an s-aorist participle; and of a kindred character, apparently, are arçasūná, óhasāna, jrayasāná, dhiyasūná, mandasāná, yamasāná, rabhasāná. vrdhasāná, sahasāná, çavasāná, all in RV.; with namasāná, bhiyásūna, in AV.

# 5. The is-aorist.

**898.** The tense-stem of this aorist adds the general tense-sign  $\mathbf{H} \mathbf{s}$  by help of a prefixed auxiliary vowel  $\mathbf{\xi} \mathbf{i}$ , making  $\mathbf{\xi}\mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{i}\mathbf{s}$ , to the root, which is usually strengthened, and which has the augment.

**899.** The rules as to the strengthening of the root are as follows:

a. A final vowel has vrddhi in the active, and guna in the middle: thus, आपाविष apavis and आपविष apavis from  $\gamma q$   $p\bar{u}$ ; आतारिष atāris, act., from  $\gamma \eta$  tr; multur açayis, mid., from  $\gamma \eta$  fi  $c\bar{c}$ .

b. An interior vowel has guna, if capable of it, in both voices: thus, अलेशिष aleçis, act. and mid., from V लिम liç; अरोचिष arocis from V रूच ruc; अवर्षिष avarsis from V वृष् एएइ; but अजीविष ajivis from V जीव jiv.

c. Medial  $\overline{n}$  a is sometimes lengthened in the active; but it more usually remains unchanged in both voices.

The roots in the older language which show the lengthening are kan, san, ran, stan, tans, vraj, vad, mad, car, tsar, hvar, jval, das. From svan and sah occur forms of both kinds.

**900.** Of exceptions may be noted:  $\gamma mrj$  has (as elsewhere: **627**)  $\nu rddhi$  instead of guna: thus, amārjisam;  $\gamma str$  has astarīs, and  $\gamma cr$  has açarīt (also açarāit in AV.), with guna in active.

The root grabh or grah has (as in future etc., below, **935 d**, **956**) long  $\overline{\imath}$  instead of *i* before the sibilant: thus, agrabhīsma, agrahīsta, agrabhīsata. The roots in changeable  $\underline{r}$  (so-called roots in  $\overline{r}$ : **242**), and  $\gamma' v \underline{r}$  are said by the grammarians to do the same optionally; but no forms with long  $\overline{\imath}$  from such roots are found in the older language.

901. The endings are as in the preceding formation (उस् us and घत ata in 3d pl.). But in 2d and 3d sing., the combination is-s and is-t are from the earliest period of the language contracted into  $\xi = is$  and  $\xi = it$ .

The 2d pl. mid. should end always in *iqhvam* (or *iqqhvam*, from *is-dhvam*: 232); and this is in fact the form in the only examples quotable from the older language, namely *qjaniqhvam* and *artiqhvam* and *āindhiqhvam*; but the grammarians give rules by which the lingual dh is optional only, and that after *i* preceded by g, r, l, v, h.

902. As examples of the inflection of the *is*-aorist may be taken the roots  $\underline{q} p \overline{u}$ , 'purify', and  $\underline{g} \underline{u} budh$ , 'awake'. Thus:

		active.			middle.	
	s.	d.	р.	8.	d.	p.
1	~		म्रपाविष्म _{ápāvişm} a		म्रपविष्ठकि ápavisvahi	श्रपविष्मरि _{ápavi} şmaki
						19*

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2	म्रपावीस्	म्रपाविष्टम्	म्रपाविष्ट	म्रपविष्ठास्	म्रपविषाद्याम्	म्रपविष्टम्
	ápāvīs 🔪	ápāvistam	ápāvista	ápavist hās	ápavişāthām	ápavið hvam
8	<b>ध्व</b> पावीत् <i>dpāvīt</i>	म्रपाविष्टाम् dpāvistām	म्रपाविषुस् <i>कृबेणंड़पड</i>	म्रपविष्ट ápavista	म्रपविषाताम् <i>apaviṣātām</i>	म्रपविषत <i>ápavisata</i>
1	म्रबोधिषम् <i>6bodhişam</i>	म्रबोधिष abodhisva	म्रबोधिष्म abodhisma			म्रवोधिष्मरि ábodhismahi
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

903. The number of roots from which forms of this aorist have been noted in the older language is about a hundred and twenty (in RV., about eighty; in AV. more than thirty, of which a dozen are additional to those in RV.; in the other texts, nearly thirty more). Among these are no roots in  $\bar{a}$ ; but otherwise they are of every variety of form (rarest in final *i* and  $\bar{i}$ ). Active and middle persons are freely made; but very sparingly from the same root (only about fifteen roots have both active and middle forms, and of these a part only exceptionally in the one voice or the other).

No rule appears to govern the choice of usage between the *is* and the *s*-aorist; and in no small number of cases (more than a fifth of all), the same root shows forms of both classes.

**904.** Irregularities of the older language are to be noticed as follows: **a.** The contracted forms akramīm, agrabhīm, and avadhīm (with augmentless vádhīm) are found in 1st sing. act.

b. For áçarīt occurs in AV. áçarāit; also (in a part of the MSS.) çarāis for çarīs: agrahūişam is found in AB. (also the monstrous form ajagrabhāişam : see 801 i).

c. From  $\gamma$  vad is found vadigma (once, AB.), with short root-vowel. AV. has mudigthas, without guna.

d. The forms atārima (RV.) and  $av\bar{a}diran$  (AV.), though they lack the sibilant, are perhaps to be referred to this aorist.

e. Ajayit, with short i in the ending, occurs in TS.

### Modes of the *is*-aorist.

905. As usual, augmentless indicative forms of this aorist are more common than proper subjunctives. Examples, of all the persons found to occur (and including all the accented words), are, in the active: cárisisam, vádhim; máthis, vádhis, yávis, sávis; ávit, júrvit, máthit, vádhit, veçit; mardhiştam, dosiştam, hirisistam; aviştām, jániştām, bādhiştām; cramişma, vādişma; vadhişta and vadhiştana, mathiştana, hirisista; hvūrişus, grahişus; — in the middle: rādhişi; jánişthās, marsisthās, vyathişthās; krámista, jánişta, pavişta, práthişta, mándişta; vyathişmahi. The accent is on the root-syllable (tārişús, AV. once, is probably an error).

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**906.** Of subjunctive forms with primary endings occur only the 1st sing. act. davişāņi, and the 1st pl. mid. (with unstrengthened e) yācişāmahe and sanisāmahe.

Forms with secondary endings are almost limited to 2d and 3d sing. act. There are found: avisas, kánisas, tārisas, raksisas, vádhisas, vádisas, vésisas, çansisas; kárisat, jambhisat, jósisat, tūrisat, níndisat, párisat, bódhisat, márdhisat, yūcisat, yodhisat, raksisat, vanisat, vyathisat, cansisat, sanisat, sāvisat. They are made, it will be noticed, with entire regularity, by adding a to the tense-stem in is before the endings. The only other persons found to occur are the 3d pl. act. sanisan and mid. sánisanta, which are also regular. **B**havisāt (AB. once) is a solitary example of a form with double mode-sign. The radical syllable always has the accent, and its vowel usually accords with that of the indicative: but we have san- in the subjunctive against asūnisam (as to cay- and ran-, see below, 908).

907. The middle optative of this aorist also forms a part of the accepted "precative" of the later language. It is very rare at all periods, being made in RV. from only five roots, and in AV. from two of the same and from three additional ones (six of the eight have other *is*-forms); and the remaining texts add, so far as noticed, only four other roots. All the forms found to occur are as follows: *janisīya*, *indhisīya*, *edhisīyá*, *rucisīya* and *rocisīya*, gmisīya; modisīsthās; *janisīyā*, *vanisīsta*; sahisīvahi; edhisīmāhi, *janisīmahi*, tārisīmahi, mandisīmahi, vandisīmāhi, vardisīmāhi, sahisīmāhi and sāhisīmāhi. The accent is on the ending, and this would lead us to expect a weak form of root throughout; but the usage in this respect appears to be various, and the cases are too few to allow of setting up any rule.

**908.** Of imperative forms, we have from  $\gamma av$  a series: namely, aviddat, aviștu, aviștăm, avită (if this, as seems probable, stands anomalously for aviștă) and aviștăna: two of these are of unmistakably imperative form. Other forms occur only in 2d du. and 2d pl., and are accordingly such as might also be subjunctives used imperatively (which is further made probable for two of them by their accentuation on the root-syllable): they are kramiștam, gamiștam, cayiștam (against acāyișam), tăriștam, yodhiștam, vadhiștam, cnathiștam; răniștana (against arānișus), cnathiștana.

909. No words having a participial ending after is are found anywhere to occur.

910. This is the only aorist of which forms are made in the secondary and denominative conjugations: see below, chap. XIV. (1019, 1035, 1048, 1068).

### 6. The sis-aorist.

911. According to the grammarians, this aorist is made from roots in  $\overline{2}$  (including  $\overline{1}$  *mi* 'establish',  $\overline{1}$  *mi* 'diminish', and  $\overline{en}$  *li* 'cling', which substitute forms in  $\overline{a}$ , and XI. AORIST-SYSTEMS.

from  $\exists \Psi$  nam,  $\exists \Psi$  yam, and  $\lbrack \Psi$  ram, and is used only in the active; the corresponding middle being of the *s*-form (4). Its inflection is precisely like that of the *is*-aorist; it is unnecessary, then, to give more than its first persons, which we may form from the roots  $\exists \Pi y \bar{a}$ , 'go', and  $\exists \Psi nam$ , 'bend'. Thus:

1	".	_{а.}	^{₽.}		^{а.}	^{₽.}
	म्रयासिषम्	म्रयासिष्ठ	म्रयासिष्म	स्रनंसिषम्	म्रनंसिष्ठ	म्रनंसिष्म
	áyāsişam	áyāsisva	áyāsişma	ánamsişam	ánamsişva	ánamsişma
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

**912.** The sis-aorist is properly only a sub-form of the is-aorist, having the tense-sign and endings of the latter added to a form of root increased by an added s. It is of extreme rarity in the older language, being made in RV. only from the roots  $g\bar{a}$  and  $y\bar{a}$ , and in AV. only from  $h\bar{a}$ , and probably from  $py\bar{a}$  and van (see below, **914**): the remaining texts add  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}$  (TB.) and  $dh\bar{a}$  (CB.); the forms  $adr\bar{a}s\bar{s}t$  (K.) and  $ahv\bar{u}s\bar{s}t$  (GB.) might be either from this or from the s-aorist.

The participle  $h\dot{a}sam\bar{a}na$  and causative  $h\bar{a}sayanti$  (RV.) show that  $h\bar{a}s$  had assumed, even at a very early period, the value of a secondary root beside  $h\bar{a}$  for other forms than the aorist.

913. The whole series of quotable indicative forms is as follows: ayāsisam, adhāsisam; agāsīs; agāsīt, ayāsīt (and adrāsīt and ahvāsīt?); ayāsistām; ajñāsisma; ajñāsista, ayāsista; agāsisus, ayāsisus (āksisus is from Vaks).

Forms without augment are these : hūsişam; hūsīs; hūsīt; hūsiştam; hūsiştām; hūsista; hūsisus, gūsisus. The accent would doubtless be upon the root-syllable.

914. Of proper subjunctives are found two, gasisat and yasisat (both RV.).

Optatives are not less rare: namely, yūsisīsithūs and pyūsisīmahi (for which the AV. manuscripts read pyūcisīmahi, altered in the edition to pyūyis-); and doubtless vancisīya (AV., twice) is to be corrected to vansisīya, and belongs here.

The accent of  $y\bar{a}sistam$  (like avistam, **908**; shows it to be a true imperative form; and  $y\bar{a}s\bar{s}ta$  (RV., once) is doubtless the same, with anomalous  $\bar{i}$  for i.

**915.** Middle forms of this aorist, it will be noticed, occur from the optative only; but, considering the great rarity of the whole formation, we are hardly justified in concluding that in the ancient language the middle persons in *-sisi*, *-sisthūs*, etc., were not allowable, like those in *-isi*, *-isthūs*, and the others of the *is*-aorist.

7. The sa-aorist.

916. In the later language, the roots allowed to form

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this aorist end in  $\Psi_{\mathcal{C}}$ ,  $\Psi_{\mathcal{S}}$ , or  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$  h — all of them sounds which in combination with the tense-sign make  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$   $k_{\mathcal{S}}$ ; and they have  $\overline{\mathfrak{s}}$  i,  $\overline{\mathfrak{s}}$  u, or  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$  r as radical vowel.

They are: dic, ric, lic, vic, klic, kruc, ruc, mrc, sprc; tvis, dvis, clis, vis, krs; dih, mih, lih, guh, duh, ruh, trh, vrh, strh (Kielhorn). Some of them may, or with certain meanings must, take aorists of other forms. And a few are allowed to drop both tense-sign and union-vowel a in certain persons of the middle: that is, they may make instead forms of the root-aorist (1).

917. As the tense-stem ends in  $\Xi a$ , the inflection is in the main like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation. But (according to the grammarians: the forms unfortunately have not been found in the older language) the 1st sing. mid. ends in  $\Xi i$  instead of  $\overline{\nabla} e$ , and the 2d and 3d du. mid. in  $\Xi$  and  $\Xi i$  instead of  $\overline{\nabla} e$ , and the 2d and 3d du. mid. in  $\Xi$  and  $\Xi i$  instead of  $\overline{\nabla} e$ , and the 2d and 3d du. mid. in  $\Xi$  and  $\Xi i$  instead of  $\Xi i$ , as in imperfects of the other conjugation. Both active and middle inflection is admitted. The root is throughout unstrengthened.

918. As example of inflection we may take the root दिम् *diç*, 'point out'. Thus:

	•	active.			middle.	
1	म् <u>र</u> म्रदित्तम्	ु. म्रदिताव	म्रदित्ताम	म्रदित	^{ब.} म्रदित्तावरिू	म्रदिनामहि
	ádikşam	ádiksāva	ádikşāma	ádiksi	ádiksāvahi	ádikşāmah <b>i</b>
2		म्रदित्ततम्		म्रदित्तधास्	म्रदिताषाम्	म्रदित्तधम्
	ádikşas`	ádiksatam	ádiksata	ádik <b>s</b> athās	ádikşāthām	ádiksadhvam
3	म्रदितत्	म्रदित्तताम्	म्रदित्तन्	শ্বदित्तत	म्रदित्ताताम्	म्रद्तित .
	ádiksat	ádikşatām	ádikşan	ádiksata	ádiksātām	ádikşanta

919. In the earlier language, the forms of the sa-aorist are hardly more than sporadic, and are with much probability to be regarded as transfers of the s-aorist to an inflection after the manner of an a-stem. They are made in RV. from eight roots; in AV., from two of these and from two others; and the remaining texts add six more, making sixteen in all. As later, all have *i* or *u* or  $\gamma$  as root-vowel, and a final consonant which combines with *s* to ks; but there are in the list also two ending in *j* (unless the forms ascribed to *mrj* and *vrj* be forced under *mrc* and *vrh*). All the examples noted are given below.

920. In the indicative, we find, in the active: avrksam; adruksas, aruksas, asprksas; adiksat, amiksat, aviksat, ákruksat, aghuksat, aduksat and

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ģehuksat, āruksat, akresat, āmresat, āspresat; aghuksatām; aruksāma, amreksāma, avresāma; ādhuksan, apiksan ( $\gamma$ pis), aruksan; — in the middle, only akresathās ( $\gamma$ krs), ādhuksata, and amreksanta.

Forms without augment (no true subjunctives occur) are, in the active: drisam, mrksam; duksas, ruksas, mrksas; dviksat; mrksata; dhuksán and duksán; — in the middle, dviksata, duksata and dhúksata, dhuksánta.

There are no optative forms.

Imperative are: in the active, mrksatam; in the middle, dhuksásva.

The few accented forms without augment which occur have the tone on the tense-sign  $s\dot{a}$ , in analogy with the *a*-aorist (2) and the imperfect of the  $\dot{a}$ -class (VII.): a single exception is *dhúkṣata*, which probably needs emendation to *dhukṣáta*.

The aspiration of initial d and g, after loss of the aspirated quality of the root-final (155), is seen in forms from the roots duh and guh, but not from druh (only a single case, AB.); RV., however, has also adukent and dukeas, dukean, dukeata.

### Precative.

921. As the so-called precative is allowed by the grammarians to be made in the later language from every root, and in an independent way, without reference to the mode of formation of the aorist from the same root, it is desirable to put together here a brief statement of the rules given for it.

922. The precative active is made by adding the active precative endings (above, 568) directly to the root. But:

**a.** Of final root-vowels (as before the passive-sign  $y\dot{a}$ : 770), *i* and *u* are lengthened; *r* is usually changed to *ri*, but to  $\bar{i}r$ and  $\bar{u}r$  in those roots which elsewhere show *ir* and *ur* forms (so-called  $\bar{r}$ -roots: 242), and to *ar* in *r* and *smr*;  $\bar{a}$  is changed to *e* in the roots  $d\bar{a}$ ,  $dh\bar{a}$ ,  $sth\bar{a}$ ,  $p\bar{a}$  'drink',  $g\bar{a}$  'sing', and a few others, in part optionally.

**b.** The root in general assumes its weakest form : a penultimate nasal is lost, as in *badhyāsam* from  $\sqrt{bandh}$ ; the roots which are abbreviated in the weak persons of the perfect (794) have the same abbreviation here, as in *ucyāsam*, *ijyāsam*, *vidhyā*sam, supyāsam, grhyāsam;  $\sqrt{c}$ ās forms *cisyāsam* (compare 639, 854): and so on.

In the older language also, as has been seen above (838), precative optative forms are made in the active only for the root-aorist, and in a manner accordant with that here described.

923. The precative middle is made by adding the middle precative endings (above, 568) to the root increased by  $\mathbf{H} \mathbf{s}$ 

or  $\overline{\xi q}$  is — that is, to the tense-stem of an *s*-aorist or of an *is*-aorist (but without augment).

The root is strengthened according to the rules that apply in forming the middle-stem of the s and of the isaorists respectively: in general, namely, a final vowel is gunated in both formations; but a medial vowel, only before  $\overline{sq}$  is.

Other minor rules it is unnecessary to repeat here.

In the older language, as has been pointed out in detail above, precative optative forms of the middle voice are oftenest made from the s-aorist (895) and the is-aorist (907); but also from the root-aorist (838), the aaorist (850), the reduplicated aorist (870), and the sis-aorist (914); and even from the perfect (812 b).

924. As example of inflection, we may take the root  $\underline{A} bh\bar{u}$ , 'be', which is said (no middle aorist or precative is made from it in the older language) to form its middle on the *is*-stem. Thus:

	8.	active. d.	р.	8.	middle. d.	р.
1	भूयामम्	भूयास्व	भूयास्म			भविषीमहि
	bhūyāsam	bhūyāsva	้ bhūyāsma	bhaviṣīyá	bhavișīvá hi	bhavisīm <b>áhi</b>
2	भूयास्	भूयास्तम्	भूयास्त	भविषीष्ठास्	भविषीयास्थाम्	भविषीढुम्
	bhūyās	bhūyāstam	bhūyastu	bhaviṣīṣṭhṫs	bhavişīyāsthām	bhavişī <b>d hvám</b>
3	भूयात्	भूयास्ताम्	भूयासुस्	শবিষীত্ব	भविषीयास्ताम्	भविषीरन्
	bhuyat	भूयास्ताम् bhūyāstām	bhūyasus	b <b>havi</b> sīstá	bhavişīyastām	bhavişīrán

According to the grammarians, the dental or lingual character of the initial of the middle ending *dhvam* depends upon how the aorist tense-sign is preceded: in the s-form, it is *dhvam* if the  $s\bar{s}$  is preceded by any other vowel than a or  $\bar{a}$ ; in the *is*-form, it may be optionally *dhvam* if the *is* is preceded by y, r, l, v, or h. This seems wholly irrational: the true question is, whether the precative s is to be regarded as really present in 2d pl. mid., as in all other 2d persons of both voices: if so — which is altogether probable, but in the absence of quotable forms from the older language cannot be pronounced certain — the ending is necessarily and always *dhvam*.

925. The precative is a form of rare occurrence in the classical language. In each of the texts already more than once referred to (Manu, Nala, Bhagavad-Gītā, Çakuntalā, Hitopadeça)

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it occurs once and no more. Its value, as already stated (578), is purely optative: thus, sarvarāstresv idam vaco brūyāsta (Nala), '[I beg that you] speak these words in all kingdoms'.

## Uses of the Aorist.

926. The uses of the aorist mode-forms (as has been already pointed out: 582) appear to accord in general with those of the mode-forms of the present-system. The predilection of the earlier language, continued sparingly in the later, for the augmentless forms in prohibitive expression after  $m\dot{a}$  was sufficiently stated and illustrated above (579).

The tense-value of the aorist indicative has also been more than once referred to, and calls only for somewhat more of detail and for illustration here.

927. The aorist of the later language is simply a preterit, equivalent to the imperfect and perfect, and frequently coordinated with them.

Thus, tatah sa gardabham lagudena tādayāmūsa; tenā 'sāu pañcatvam agamat (H.), 'thereupon he beat the donkey with a stick; and hereof the latter died'; tatah sā vidarbhān agamat punah; tām tu bandhujanah samapūjayat (MBh.), 'thereupon she went back to Vidarbha; and her kindred paid her reverence'; prītimān abhūt: uvūca cai 'nam (MBh.), 'he was filled with affection, and said to him'.

**928.** The aorist of the older language has the value of a proper "perfect": that is, it signifies something past which is viewed as completed with reference to the present; and it requires accordingly to be rendered by our tense made with the auxiliary *have*. In general, it indicates what has just taken place; and oftenest something which the speaker has experienced.

Examples from the Veda are: párī 'mé gẩm anesata páry agním ahrsata, devésv akrata çrávah ká imẩn á dadharsati (RV.), 'these here have led about a cow, they have carried around the fire, they have done honor to the gods — who shall venture anything against them?' yấm āíchāma mánasā sò 'yấm á 'gāt (RV.), 'he whom we (formerly, impf.) sought with our mind has (now, aor.) come'; yéné 'ndro havísā krtvy ábhavad dyumny ùttamáh, idám tád akri devā asapatnáh kílā 'bhuvam (RV.), 'that libation by which Indra, making it, became (impf.) of highest glory, I have now made, ye gods; I have become free from enemies'.

Examples from the Brāhmaņa language are: sā hā 'smin jyóg uvāsa... tāto ha gandharvāh sām ūdire: jyóg vā iştim urvāçī manusyèsv avātsīt (GB.), 'she lived with him a long time. Then the Gandharvas said to one another, "this Urvaçi, forsooth, hath dwelt a long time among mortals"; tasya ha dantāh pedire: tam ho 'vāca: apatsata vā asya dantāh (AB.), 'his teeth fell out. He said to him: "his teeth truly have fallen out"; indrasya vritán jaghnúsa indriván virydm prihivím ánu vy archat tád óshadhayo virúdho 'bhavan sá prajápatim úpā 'dhāvad vritám me jaghnúsa indriván virydm prihivím ánu vy arat tád óshadhayo virúdho 'bhūvann fii (TS.), 'of Indra, when he had slain Vritra, the force and might went away into the earth, and became the herbs and plants: he ran to Prajāpati, saying: "my force and might, after slaying Vritra, have gone away into the earth, and have become the herbs and plants"; svayám enam abhyudétya brūyād vrátya kvà 'vātsāh (AV., in prose passage), 'going up to him in person, let him say: "Vrātya, where hast thou abode"? yád idánām dvāú vivádamānāv eyátām ahám adarçam ahám açrāusam fii yá evá brūyād ahám adarçam fit tásmā evá cráddadhyāma (ÇB.), 'if now two should come disputing with one another, [the one] saying "I have seen". [the other] "I have heard", we should believe the one who said "I have seen".

**929.** This distinction of the aorist from the imperfect and perfect as tenses of narration is very common in the Brāhmaņas, and is closely observed: neglect of it is very rare, and is to be regarded as either due to corruption of text or indicative of a late origin.

In the Vedic hymns, the same distinction is prevalent, but is both less clear and less strictly maintained: many passages would admit an interpretation implying either sense; and evident aorist-forms (especially of the simple aorist: Delbrück) are sometimes used narratively, while imperfectforms are also occasionally employed in the aorist sense.

**930.** The boundary between that which has just been and that which now is is occasionally overstepped, and the aorist becomes nearly the equivalent of a present. Not very rarely, in the Veda, it is convenient to render the former as if it were the latter; and in the Brāhmaņa the same is true especially of the aorist *akar*.

# CHAPTER XII.

### THE FUTURE-SYSTEMS.

931. THE verb has two futures, of very different age and character. The one has for tense-sign a sibilant followed by  $\overline{\eta}$  ya, and is an inheritance from the time of Indo-European unity. The other is a periphrastic formation, made by appending an auxiliary verb to a derivative noun of XII. FUTURE-SYSTEMS. [981-

agency, and it is a recent addition to the verb-system; its beginnings only are met with in the earliest language. The former may be called the s-future (or the old future, or simply the future; the latter may be distinguished as the periphrastic future.

# I. The s-future.

932. The tense-sign of this future is the syllable FU syá, added to the root either directly or by an auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i* (in the latter case becoming  $\xi$  = *i*, *y*(*a*). The root has the guna-strengthening. Thus, from  $\sqrt{\xi}$  i dā is formed the future tense-stem  $\xi$  =  $\xi$  +  $d\bar{a}$  +  $d\bar{a}$  + i, the stem  $\bar{\xi}$  =  $\xi$ the stem  $\chi$  =  $\xi$  + duh, the stem  $\xi$  =  $\chi$  + dhok,  $\chi$  + i, the stem  $\bar{\chi}$  = duh, the stem  $\bar{\chi}$  = dhok,  $\chi$  +  $\chi$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\chi$  = havisya; from  $\chi$  =  $\chi$  +  $\chi$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\bar{\chi}$  =  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\chi$  =  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\chi$  =  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\bar{\chi}$  =  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $h\bar{u}$ , the stem  $\bar{\chi}$  =  $\bar{\chi}$  +  $\bar{\chi}$ 

But from  $\gamma j \bar{\nu} v$  the stem is  $j \bar{\nu} v i s y d$ , from  $\gamma u k s$  it is u k s i s y d, and so on (240).

933. This tense-stem is then inflected precisely like a present-stem ending in  $\overline{n} a$  (second general conjugation). We may take as models of inflection the future of  $\gamma \overline{a} d\overline{a}$ , 'give', and that of  $\gamma \overline{a} kr$ , 'make'. Thus:

-		active.	L		middle.	
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	р.
1	दास्यामि	दास्यावस्	दास्यामस्	दास्ये	दास्यावर्हे	दास्यामके
	dāsyāmi	dāsyāvas`	dāsyāmas	dāsyé	dāsy <b>āvah</b> e	dāsyāmahe
2	दास्यमि	दास्ययस्	दास्यय	दास्यमे	दास्येवे	दास्यघे
	dāsyási	dāsyáthas	dāsyátha	dāsyáse	dāsyéthe	dāsyádhve
8	दास्यति	दास्यतम्	दास्यत्ति	दास्यते	दास्येते	दास्यत्ते
	dāsyáti	dāsyátas	dāsyánti	dāsyáte	dāsyéte	dāsyánte
1	करिष्यामि	। करिष्यावम्	करिष्यामस्	करिष्ये व	<b>करिष्याव</b> रे ब	<b>करिष्याम</b> रु

arişyami karişyavas karişyamas karişyé karişyavahe karişyamahe etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

934. With regard to the use or non-use of the auxiliary vowel i before the sibilant, there is a degree of general accordance between this tense and the other future and the desidera-

tive; but it is by no means absolute, nor are any definite rules to be laid down with regard to it (and so much the less, because of the infrequency of the two latter formations in actual use): between this and the aorist (s-aorist on the one side, or is-aorist on the other), any correspondence is still less traceable. Practically, it is necessary to learn, as a matter of usage, how any given root makes these various parts of its conjugational system.

**935.** Below is added a statement of the usage, as regards the auxiliary vowel, of the roots observed to form the s-future in the older language (more than a hundred and fifty: the collection is believed to be tolerably complete) — for the most part, in the form of a specification of the roots which add the tense-sign directly to the root; in brackets are further mentioned the other roots which according to the grammarians also refuse the auxiliary vowel.

a. Of roots ending in vowels, the great majority (excepting those in r) take no *i*. Thus, all in  $\bar{a}$  (numerous, and unnecessary to specify); all in *i* — *i*, *kşi*, *ci*, *ji* — except *cri* [and *cvi*]; all in  $\bar{i}$  — *krī*, *nī*, *bhī*, *mī*, *vlī* except *cī* [and *dī*]; all in *u* — *cyu*, *dru*, *plu*, *cru*, *dru* — except *su* 'press', and *stu*, which follow either method, as *stosyāmi* and *stavisyāmi* [and except *kşu*, *kṣņu*, *nu*, *yu*. *ru*, *snu*]. But all in *r* (numerous, and unnecessary to specify) take *i* [and those in changeable *r*, or so-called *F*-roots (242) are said to take either *i* or  $\bar{i}$ ; no  $\bar{i}$ -forms, however, are found in the older language]; and likewise those in  $\bar{u}$  — namely *bhū*, *dhū*.

b. Of roots ending in mutes, two thirds add sya directly. Thus, of roots in k, cak; — in c (all but yāc: namely), muc, ric, vac, vraçe, sie [and pac, vic]; — in ch, prach (only case); — in j (all but vraj: namely), bhaj, majj (mārksya), mṛj (mārksya), yaj, yuj, vṛj, sṛj [also tyaj, bhrajj, bhañj, rañj, sañj, svañj, nij, vij, ruj, bhuj]; in t, kṛt and vṛt [kṛt. cṛt, nṛt optionally]; — in d, ad, pad, cad, sad, skand, syand, chid, bhid, vid 'find', nud [also had, khid, svid, kṣud, tud, and chṛd and tṛd optionally]: only observed exceptions, vad, and vid 'know'; — in dh, bandh, rādh, budh, yudh, rudh [also vyadh, sādh, sidh, krudh, kṣudh, cudh, vṛdh]: only observed exceptions, rdh and gṛdh; — in n, tan and man (but man forms sometimes manisya); — in p, tap, vap, āp, gup, dṛp, sṛp, klp [also cap, kṣip, lip, lup]: svap forms both svapsya and svapisya; — in bh, yabh and labh [also rabh]: no exceptions observed; — in m, nam, yam, ram: kram follows either method.

c. Of roots ending in semivowels, all (they are very few) take the auxiliary *i*. The roots  $v\bar{a}$  or vi ("ve") 'weave' and  $hv\bar{a}$  or  $h\bar{u}$  ("hve") 'call' take the forms vay and hvay, as before the *a* of their present-stem: thus, vayisya, hvayisya.

d. Of roots ending in spirants, the minority (about a third) are without the auxiliary vowel. They are: roots in c, vic, drc (draksya), mrc (mraksya) [also danc, dic, ric, lic, kruc, ruc, sprc]; — in s, cis, krs (kraksya) [also tvis, dvis, pis, vis, clis, tus, dus, pus, cus]; — in s, vas 'dwell' (vateya: 167) [also ghas]; — in h, dah, vah, mih, duh, ruh [also nah, dih, lih]: exceptions are grah (grahīsya) and muh.

In the older language, a decided, though not a large, majority of simple roots add the syz without auxiliary i; in the classical Sanskrit, doubtless the contrary is the case, as i is generally taken by any root of late origin and derivative character — as it is also uniformly in secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.).

936. As the root is strengthened in forming the stem of this future, so, of a root that has a strong and a weak form, the strong form is used: thus, from  $\gamma$  naç or nanç is made nankeya; from  $\gamma$  sras or srans, sransisya, and the like.

Special irregularities in forming stems from certain roots have been noted in connection with those roots above (see *majj*, *mrj*, *vay* and *hvay*, *grah*).

The CB. has once the monstrous form acruvisyāmahe, made upon the present-stem acruu (cl. IV.) of  $\gamma'ac$ .

937. This future is comparatively rare in the oldest language — in part, apparently, because the uses of a future are to a large extent answered by subjunctive forms — but becomes more and more common later. Thus, the RV. has only seventeen occurrences of personal forms, from nine different roots (with participles from six additional roots); the AV. has fifty occurrences, from twenty-five roots (with participles from seven more); the TS. has occurrences (personal forms and participles together) from over sixty roots; and (as has been noticed above) forms from more than a hundred and fifty roots are quotable from the older texts.

#### Modes of the s-future.

**938.** Mode-forms of the future occur only sporadically. The sole Vedic example is karişyás, 2d sing. subj. act. (in RV., once or twice); GB. has eşyāmahāi, tansyāmahāi, sthāsyāmahāi, all 1st pl. subj. mid.; and bhavigyadhvam, vetsyadhvam, savişyadhvam, 2d pl. impv. mid., are quoted (Bopp) from MBh.

### Participles of the s-future.

939. Participles are made from the future-stem precisely as from a present-stem in  $\overline{n}$  a: namely, by adding in the active the ending  $\overline{n}$  nt, in the middle the ending  $\overline{n}$  māna; the accent remains upon the stem. Thus, from the verbs instanced above,  $\overline{z}_1\overline{z}_2\overline{z}_1$  and  $\overline{z}_1\overline{z}_2\overline{z}_1$  māna, affeur karisyánt and affeur karisyámāna.

According to the grammarians, the feminine of the active participle is made either in inti or in ati; but only the former has been noted as occur-

ring in the older language, and the latter, if met with at all, is very rare: see above, **449**.

In RV. occurs once súgyanti, from  $\sqrt{su}$ , with anomalous accentuation.

### Preterit of the s-future: Conditional.

940. From the future-stem is made an augment-preterit, by prefixing the augment and adding the secondary endings, in precisely the same manner as an imperfect from a present-stem in  $\exists a$ . This preterit is called the conditional.

It stands related to the future, in form and meaning, as the French conditional aurais to the future aurai, or as the English would have to will have — nearly as the German würde haben to werde haben.

Thus, from the roots already instanced:

	active.			middle.		
	8.	d.	р.	8.	d.	р.
1	म्रदास्यम्	म्रदास्याव	म्रदास्याम	म्रदास्ये	म्रदास्यावक्ति	म्रदास्यामहि
	ádāsyam	ádāsyāva	ádāsyām <b>a</b>	ádāsye	ádāsyāvahi	ádāsyāmahi
2	म्रदास्यम्	म्रदास्यतम्	म्रदास्यत	म्रदास्ययास्	म्रदास्येवाम्	म्रदास्यधम्
	ádāsyas`	ádāsyatam	ádāsyata	ádāsyathās	ádāsyethām	ádāsyadhvam
3	म्रदास्यत्	म्रदास्यताम्	म्रदास्यन्	म्रदास्यत		म्रदास्यत्त
	ádāsyat`	ddāsyatām	`ádāsyan`	ádā <b>sy</b> ata	ádāsyetām`	ádāsya <b>nta</b>

1 म्रकरिष्यम् म्रकरिष्याव म्रकरिष्याम म्रकरिष्यं म्रकरिष्यावरिः म्रकरिष्यामस्टि dkarişyam dkarişyāva dkarişyāma dkarişye dkarişyavahi dkarışyāmahi

etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

941. The conditional is the rarest of all the forms of the Sanskrit verb. The RV. has but a single example, *ábharisyat*, 'was going to carry off', and none of the Vedic texts furnishes another. In the Brāhmanas it is hardly more common (fifteen occurrences, of which several are in repetitions of the same passage) — except in QB., where it is met with more than fifty times. Nor does it, like the future, become more frequent later: not an example occurs in Nala. Bhagavad-Gītā, or Hitopadeça; only one in Manu; and two in Çakuntalā.

### II. The Periphrastic Future.

942. This formation contains only a single indicative tense. active and middle, without modes, or participle, or preterit.

Its consists in a derivative nomen agentis, having the

value of a future active participle, and used, either with or without an accompanying auxiliary, in the office of a verbal tense with future meaning.

943. The noun is formed by the suffix  $\overline{\eta}$  tr (or  $\overline{\eta_{\chi}}$  tar); and this (as in its other than verbal uses: see chap. XVII.) is added to the root either directly or with a preceding auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i*, the root itself being strengthened by guna, but the accent resting on the suffix: thus,  $\xi \eta \eta$  $d\overline{a}tr$  from  $\gamma \xi \eta d\overline{a}$ ;  $\overline{\eta_{\eta}}$  kartr from  $\gamma \overline{\eta}$  kr;  $\eta \overline{\eta_{\eta}}$  bhavitr from  $\gamma \eta bh\overline{u}$ .

As regards the presence or absence of the vowel i, the usage is said by the grammarians to be generally the same as in the s-future from the same root (above, **935**). The most important exception is that the roots in r take no *i*: thus, karty (against karisya); roots han and gam show the same difference; while vrt, vrdh, and syand have *i* here, though not in the s-future. The few forms which occur in the older language agree with these statements.

944. In the third persons of both voices, the nom. masc. of the noun, in the three numbers respectively (873), is used without auxiliary: thus, भविता bhavitå, 'he or she or it will be'; भवितारी bhavitårau, 'both will be'; भवितारम bhavitåras, 'they will be'. In the other persons, the first and second persons present of  $\gamma$  मस as 'be' (636) are used as auxiliary; and they are combined, in all numbers, with the singular nom. masc. of the noun. As an independent verb, मस as has no middle forms; but for this auxiliary use middle persons have been made by analogy,  $\overline{\mathfrak{F}}$  he being used in 1st sing.

	Thus, :	from $\gamma$ दा	$d\bar{a}$ , 'give':			
	8.	active. d.	p.	8.	middle. d.	- р.
1	दातास्मि	दातास्वम्	दातास्मस्	दाताके	दातास्वक्	दातास्मके
	dātāsmi	dātāsvas	dātāsmas`	dātāhe	dātāsvahe	dātāsmahe
2	दातामि dātāsi	दातास्यम् ^{dātāsthas}	दातास्य dātástha		दातासाथे dātásāthe	
3	दाता dātá	दातारी dātắrāu	दातारम् dātāras	दाता ^{dātā}	दातारी dātárāu	दातारम् dātáras

Very rarely, other persons than the third are used without the auxiliary verb: thus, aharh drastā, 'I shall see' (MBh.); tvam bhavitā (MBh. Megh.), 'thou shalt be'; and examples are not unknown of the auxiliary in the 3d person: thus, vaktā 'sti (MBh.), 'he will speak'; and of the use in dual and plural of the proper number-form with the auxiliary: thus, kartārāu svaķ (MBh.), 'we two shall do'.

945. The accent in these combinations, as in all the ordinary cases of collocation of a verb with a preceding predicate noun or adjective (592), is on the noun itself; and, unlike all the true verbal forms, the combination retains its accent everywhere even in an independent clause: thus, tárhi vá atināstró bhavitásmi (CB.), 'then I shall be out of danger' (where bhavisyāmi, if used, would be accentless). Whether in a dependent clause the auxiliary verb would take an accent (595), and whether, if so, at the expense of the accent of the noun (as in the case of a preposition compounded with a verb-form: 1083), we are without the means of determining.

946. In the Veda, the nomina agentis in  $t_{T}$  or tar, like various other derivative nouns (271), but with especial frequency, are used in participial construction, governing the accusative if they come from roots whose verbal forms do so. Often, also, they are used predicatively, with or without accompanying copula; yet without any implication of time; they are not the beginnings, but only the forerunners, of a new tense-formation. The tense-use begins, but rather sparingly, in the Brāhmaņas (from which over thirty occurrences are quotable), and grows more common later, though the periphrastic future is nowhere so frequent as the s-future.

947. Middle forms are extremely few in the older language. TS. has once prayoktáse, which seems to be 1st sing. (the usual ending e added to the abbreviated root's); but TA. (i. 11) has once the later form yasiáhe; cayitáse in (B. is clearly 2d sing.; TB. has once yasiásmahe, 1st pl.

### Uses of the Futures and Conditional.

948. As the s-future is the commoner, so also it is the one more indefinitely used. It expresses in general what is going to take place at some time to come — but often, as in other languages, adding on the one hand an implication of will or intention, or on the other hand that of promise or threatening.

A few examples are: varsisyáty āisámah parjányo výstimān bhavisyati (CB., 'it is going to rain; Parjanya is going to be rich in rain this year'; yás tún nú véda kím rcá karisyati (RV.), 'whoever does not know that, what will he do with verse?' á vāť vayúm agní dhāsyāmaha átha yūyám kím karisyatha (CB.), 'we are going to build the two fires; then what will you do?' túm índro 'bhyádudrāva hanisyán (CB.), 'him Indra ran at, intending to slay'; yídy evá karisyátha sākám devāír yajñíyāso bhavisyatha (RV.), 'if

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ye will do thiss, ye shall be worthy of the secrifice along with the gods; dántās te patoyanti AV., 'thy teeth will fall out': nó moriopani má bähes (AV., 'thos shalt not die: be not afraid: brühi bre päopani MBh., 'tell us; where are you going to go?' padi mām pretyžkiyāsyasi visam ārthāsye MBh., 'lf you shall reject me. I will resort to poison'. As in other languages, the tense is also sometimes used for the expression of a conjecture: thus: ho 'panh devo gandharvo vā bhaviyyati MBh., 'who is this? he is doubtless a god, or a Gandharva'.

949. The periphrastic future is defined by the grammarians as expressing something to be done at a definite time to come. And this, though but faintly traceable in later use. is a distinct characteristic of the formation in the language where it first makes its appearance Delbrück. It is especially often used along with crds, 'tomorrow'.

A few examples are : pataran va ime çved kamitaras te jetaras K. 'whichever of the two parties these shall choose tomorrow, they will commer: prätor yaştārmake (TB., 'we shall seerifice tomorrow morning'; ityaké val paktásmi 'CB., 'on such and such a day I will cook for you'; tan ma cham råtrim ånte çayitåse jätå u te 'yåri tårki putro bhavita (CB., 'then you shall lie with me one night, and at that time this son of yours will be born'. In other cases, this definiteness of time is wanting, but an emphasis, as of special certainty, seems perhaps to belong to the form; thus, bibhrhf mā pāravievāmi tvē 'ti: kāemān mā pāravievast 'ty āughā imāh sárvāh prajā nirvodhá, tátas tvā pārayitásmí 'ti (CB.), 'support me and I will save you, said it. From what will you save me? said he. A flood is going to carry off all these creatures; from that I will save you, said it'; paridevayām cakrire mahae chokabhayam prāptāsmas (GB., 'they set up a lamentation : "we are going to meet with great pain and dread"'; yaje 'yaksi yastahe ca (TA., 'I sacrifice, I have sacrificed, and I shall sacrifice'. In yet other cases, in the older language even, and yet more in the later, this future appears to be equivalent to the other: thus, prajāyām enam vijnātāsmo yadi vidvān vā juhoty avidvan va (AB.), 'we shall know him in his children whether he is one that sacrifices with knowledge or without knowledge'; vaktāsmo vā idam devebhyah (AB.), 'we shall tell this to the gods'; yadi svärtho mamā 'pi bhavitā tata evam svārtham karisyāmi (MBh.), 'if later my own affair shall come up, then I will sttend to my own affair'; katham tu bhavitāsy eka iti tvām nypa çocimi (MBh.), 'but how will you get along alone? that, O king, is the cause of my grief about you'.

950. The conditional would seem to be most originally and properly used to signify that something 'was going to' be done. And this value it has in its only Vedic ocurrence, and occasionally elsewhere. But usually it has the sense ordinarily called "conditional"; and in the great majority of its occurrences it is found (like the subjunctive and the optative, when used with the same value) in both clauses of a conditional sentence. USES OF THE CONDITIONAL.

Thus, yó vytráya sínam átrá 'bharisyat prá tám jánitri vidúsa uvāca (RV.), 'him, who was going here to carry off Vritra's wealth, his mother proclaimed to the knowing one'; catayum gam akarisyam (AB.), 'I was going to make (should have made) the cow live a hundred years' (in other versions of the same story is added the other clause, in which the conditional has a value more removed from its original: thus, in GB., 'if you, villain, had not stopped [prágrahisyah] my mouth'); táta evá 'sya bhayám vi 'yäya kásmād dhy abheeyad dvitiyad vai bhayam bhavati (CB.), 'thereupon his fear departed; for of whom was he to be afraid? occasion of fear arises from a second person'; útpapāta cirám tán mene yád vásah paryádhāsyata (CB.), 'he leaped up: he thought it long that he should put on a garment'; sá tád evá ná 'vindat prajápatir yátrá 'hosyat (MS.), 'Prejāpati, verily, did not then find where he was to (should) sacrifice'; evan cen nā 'vakeyo mūrdhā te vyapatisyat (GB.), 'if you should not speak thus, your head would fly off'; sa yad dhāi 'távad evá 'bhavisyad yávatyo hai 'vá 'gre prajáh systás távatyo hāi 'vá 'bhavisyan ná prá 'janisyanta (CB.), 'if he had been only so much, there would have been only so many living creatures as were created at first; they would have had no progeny'; kim vā 'bhavisyad aruņas tamasām vibhettā tam cet sahasrakirano dhuri nā 'karisyat (Çak.), 'would the Dawn, forsooth, be the scatterer of the darkness, if the thousand-rayed one did not set her on the front of his chariot?'

# CHAPTER XIII.

# VERBAL ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS: PARTICIPLES, INFINITIVES, GERUNDS.

951. THOSE verbal adjectives, or participles, which are made from tense-stems, and so constitute a part of the various tense-systems, have been already treated. It remains to describe certain others, which, being made directly from the root itself, belong to the verbal system as a whole, and not to any particular part of it.

The infinitive (with a few sporadic exceptions in the older language) also comes in all cases from the root directly, and not from any of the derived tense-stems.

The same is true of the so-called gerunds, or indeclinable participles.

### Passive Participle in tá or ná.

952. By the accented suffix  $\overline{n}$  tá — or, in a comparatively small number of verbs,  $\overline{n}$  ná — is formed a verbal

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adjective which, when coming from transitive verbs, qualifies anything as having endured the action expressed by the verb: thus,  $\overline{\xi\pi}$  dattá, 'given';  $\overline{\Im\pi}$  uktá, 'spoken'. Hence it is usually called the passive participle; or, to distinguish it from the participle belonging to the passive present-system (771), the past passive participle.

When made from an intransitive or neuter verb, the same participle, as in other languages, has no passive but only an indefinite past sense: thus, गत gatá, 'gone'; भूत bhūtá, 'been'; पतित patitá, 'fallen'.

958. In general, this participle is made by adding  $\overline{\alpha}$  ta to the bare verbal root, with observation of the ordinary rules of euphonic combination.

Some roots, however, require the prefixion of the auxiliary vowel i to the suffix. For these, and for the verbs that add nd instead of td, see below, 956, 957.

As to the accent when the root is preceded by a preposition, see 1085 s.

954. The root before  $\overline{\neg}$  tá has usually its weakest form, if there is anywhere in the verbal system a distinction of weak and strong forms. Thus:

**s.** A penultimate nasal is dropped: e. g. aktá from  $\gamma$  añj, baddhá from  $\gamma$  bandh, srastá from  $\gamma$  srañs or sras.

**b.** Roots which in the weak forms of the perfect are abbreviated (794) suffer the same abbreviation here: thus, uktá from V vac,  $\bar{u}dhá$  from V vah, istå from V yaj, suptá from V svap, viddhá from V vyadh, prstá from V prach.

c. Final  $\bar{a}$  is weakened to  $\bar{i}$  in  $g\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{g\bar{a}}$  'sing',  $p\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$  'drink',  $dh\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$  'suck',  $sph\bar{i}t\dot{a}$ ,  $v\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{vy\bar{a}}$ ,  $j\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{jy\bar{a}}$ ,  $c\bar{i}t\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{cy\bar{a}}$ ; — and it is weakened to i in sthit $\dot{a}$ , hit $\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$  'put' (with dh also changed to h: but dhit $\dot{a}$  is found also in compounds in V.), dit $\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$  'cut' and  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$  'bind'; sit $\dot{a}$ , mit $\dot{a}$  from  $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$  'measure',  $cit\dot{a}$  (or  $c\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ ), chit $\dot{a}$  (or chat $\dot{a}$ ).

**d**. A final m or n is lost after a in gatá, natá, yatá, ratá (from  $\gamma$  gam etc.); hatá, matá, kṣatá, tatá, vatá (from  $\gamma$  han etc.).

e. More isolated cases are:  $\bar{u}t\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma av$ ,  $ut\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma v\bar{a}$  'weave',  $c_{ist\dot{a}}$  from  $\gamma c\bar{a}s$ ,  $m\bar{u}rt\dot{a}$  referred to  $\gamma m\bar{u}rch$ ,  $sy\bar{u}t\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma s\bar{v}v$ ,  $dy\bar{u}t\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma d\bar{u}v$  'play',  $m\bar{u}t\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma m\bar{v}v$ ,  $dh\bar{u}ut\dot{a}$  from  $\gamma dh\bar{u}v$  'cleanse' (RV. has also  $dh\bar{u}t\dot{a}$ ).

955. Of more irregular character are the following:

**a.** A number of roots ending in *am* retain the nasal and lengthen the radical vowel (as in others of their verbal forms): thus,  $k\bar{a}ntda$ ,  $kr\bar{a}ntda$ ,  $c\bar{a}ntda$ ,  $cr\bar{a}ntda$ , from  $\gamma$  kram etc.;  $\gamma$  dhvan 'be covered' forms in like manner  $dhv\bar{a}ntda$ .

b. Three roots in an make the participle from parallel roots in  $\bar{a}$ : thus,  $j\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ ,  $kh\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ ,  $s\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ , from  $\sqrt{jan}$  etc.

c. The root  $d\bar{a}$  'give' forms dattá (from the derivative form dad), but  $d\bar{a}ta$  also is found in composition in V. The contracted *tta* (as if for  $d\bar{a}ta$ , with the radical vowel lost) is widely found in composition, especially with prepositions (1087 e), but also with other elements: thus, devátta (RV.); punartta (PB. vi. 5. 12); and, according to the grammarians, sūtta. The root jaks (derivative of ghas: 675) forms jagdhá, as if from jagh (once apparently abbreviated in composition to gdha in TS. : thus, agdhād);  $\sqrt{svad}$  makes in Veda  $sv\bar{a}tta$  (beside svadita).

956. The suffix with  $\xi$  *i*, or in the form  $\xi \vec{n}$  *ita*, is regularly used with the derivative verb-stems in secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.), also often with roots of a derivative character (as  $\exists \vec{n} = j inv$ ,  $\exists \vec{r} = h ins$ ), and not infrequently with original roots (as  $\forall \vec{n} \mid pat$ ,  $\exists \vec{y} \mid car$ ,  $\forall \vec{n} = manth$ ,  $\exists \vec{r} \mid c\bar{r}$ ).

In RV. and AV., the participles in *ita* from simple roots are more than a sixth of the whole number. Among them, *uditá* ( $\gamma$ *vad*) is the only case of abbreviation of *va* to *u*. From *crath* comes *crthita* (once). Jahitá from  $\gamma h \bar{a}$  (by substitution of the present-stem as shown in *jahāmi*) is an isolated irregularity. *Cayita* shows the same strengthening which appears in the present-system (629).

A few roots form the participle either with or without the auxiliary i: thus, guptá and gupitá, drptá and drpitá, dhrsitá and dhrsitá, mattá and maditá, vittá (also vinná) and viditá.

The root grabh or grah has, as elsewhere, long i: thus, grbhitá, grhitá.

957. The suffix  $\neg n\dot{a}$  (always without auxiliary  $\xi i$ ) is taken instead of  $\neg t\dot{a}$  by a number of roots. Thus:

a. Certain roots in  $\bar{a}$ , and in *i* and *u*-vowels: namely, cyand or cindfrom  $\gamma cyu$ , crand from  $\gamma cra$ , jind (beside jitd) from  $\gamma ju$  or ji, cund from  $\gamma cvu$  or cvi, hand and hind from  $\gamma h\bar{a}$ , dind from  $\gamma d\bar{a}$  'bind' and 'cut', ksind (beside ksitd) from  $\gamma ksi$  'destroy', pind from  $\gamma pu \bar{a}$  or pi, vlind from  $\gamma vli$ , lind from  $\gamma l\bar{i}$ , dund from  $\gamma du$ , dyund from  $\gamma d\bar{u}v$  or dev 'lament', lund from  $\gamma l\bar{u}$  — and some others.

b. The roots in variable r (so-called r-roots: **242**), which before the suffix becomes ir or ur: thus, kirná, girná, jirná, tirná, dirná, çirná, stirná (beside strtá); purná, murná; and jurná.

A few participial forms in tá from such roots are met with in the older language: thus, gūrtá, pūrtá, cīrtá.

c. A few roots ending in j (which becomes g before the suffix: 216.4): thus, bhagná from  $\gamma$ bhaj, bhugná from  $\gamma$ bhuj, magná from  $\gamma$ majj, rugná from  $\gamma$ ruj. Also, one or two others that show a guttural before the na: thus, lagná from  $\gamma$ lag, vrkná from  $\gamma$ orace, akná from  $\gamma$ ac.

d. A number of roots, some of them very common ones, in d (which becomes n before the suffix: 161, end): thus, channá, chinná, bhinná, vinná (beside vittá and viditá), skanná, syanná, svinná, tunná, panná, sanná (beside sattá, which alone is found in  $\nabla$ .); and hlanná (according to the grammarians) from  $\gamma$  hlād; also traná from  $\gamma$ trd and chraná from  $\gamma$ chrd, which show an irregular lingualization of the nasal; and others.

958. The grammarians reckon as participles of this formation a few miscellaneous derivative adjectives, coming from roots which do not make a regular participle: such are ksāma, 'burnt', krçá, 'emaciated', pakvá, 'ripe', phullá, 'expanded', çuşka, 'dry'.

### Past Active Participle in tavant.

959. From the past passive participle is made, by adding the possessive suffix বন্ vant, a secondary derivative having the meaning and construction of a perfect active participle: for example, নন ব্যানবান্ tát krtávān, 'having done that'. Its inflection is like that of other derivatives made with this suffix (452 ff.); its feminine ends in বানী vatī; its accent remains on the participle.

960. Derivative words of this formation are found in RV., but without anything like a participial value. The AV. has a single example, with participial meaning: acitávaty átithāu, 'one's guest having eaten' (loc. abs.). In the Brāhmanas also it is extremely rare. In the later language, however, it comes to be quite common. And there it is almost always used predicatively, and generally without copula expressed, or with the value of a personal verb-form in the perfect tense (like the derivative in tā in the future: 942 ff.). For example: mārh na kaçcid drstavān, 'no one has seen me'; sa nakularh vyāpāditavān, 'he destroyed the ichneumon'; or, with copula, makat krohram prāptavaty asi, 'thou hast fallen upon great misery'. Although originally and properly made only from transitive verbs (with an object, to which the participle in ta stands in the relation of an objective or factitive predicate), it is finally found also from intransitives: thus, cūtena sarhcritavatā (Çak.), 'has become united with the mango-tree'; gatavatī (ib.), 'she has gone'.

#### Future Passive Participles: Gerundives.

961. Certain derivative adjectives (for the most part

more or less clearly secondary derivatives) have acquired in the language a value as qualifying something which is to, or which ought to, suffer the action expressed by the root from which they come; and they are allowed to be made from every verb. Hence they are, like more proper participles, usually treated as a part of the general verbal system, and called future passive participles, or gerundives (like the Latin forms in *ndus*, to which they correspond in meaning).

962. The suffixes by which such gerundives are regularly and ordinarily made are three: namely য ya, নতয tavya, and মনীয anīya.

Derivatives in ya having this value are made in all periods of the language, from the earliest down; the other two are of more modern origin, being entirely wanting in the oldest Veda (RV.), and hardly known in the later. Other derivatives of a similar character, which afterward disappear from use, are found in the Veda.

963. The suffix ys in its gerundive use has nothing to distinguish it from the same suffix as employed to make adjectives and nouns of other character (see below, chap. XVIII.: 1218). And it exhibits also the same variety in the treatment of the root.

The original value of the suffix is ia, and as such it has to be read in the very great majority of its Vedic occurrences. Hence the conversion of e and o to ay and av before it (see below).

Thus: **a**. Final  $\bar{a}$  becomes e before the suffix: deya, khyeya, meya (probably  $d\bar{a}$ -ia etc., with euphonic y interposed): but RV. has once  $-j\bar{n}\bar{a}ya$ . — **b**. The other vowels either remain unchanged, or have the guna or the vrddhi strengthening; and e usually and o always are treated before the ya as they would be before a vowel: thus, jáyya, bháyya, lāyya; návya, bhávya, hávya, bhāvyá; várya: and, in the later language, niya, jeya, dhūya (such cases are wanting earlier). In a few instances, a short vowel adds tbefore the suffix: thus, itya, mitya, crútya, stútya, krtya (the only Vedic examples). — **c**. Medial a remains unchanged or is lengthened: thus, dábhya, vándya, sádya; mádya, vácya. **d**. Medial *i*, *u*, and *r*-vowels are unchanged or have the gunastrengthening: thus, *idya*, gúhya, dhreya; dvésya, yódhya, márjya.

The RV. has about forty examples of this gerundive, and the AV. adds half as many more. Except in *bhūviá* (once), the accent in RV. is always

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on the root; AV. has several cases of accent on the *i* of the suffix (hence written  $\bar{a}dyd$ ,  $\bar{a}cyd$ ,  $-vy\bar{a}dhyd$ , -dharsyd). According to the grammarians, the accent is on the root or else the ending is circumflexed: always the former, if the ya follow a vowel.

964. The suffix *tavya* is a secondary adjective derivative from the infinitival noun in tu (below, 972), made by adding the suffix ya (properly ia, whence the accent ya), before which the final u, as usual, has guna-strengthening, and is resolved into av.

Hence, both as regards the form taken by the root and the use or omission of an auxiliary vowel i before the *tavya*, the rules are the same as for the formation of the infinitive (below, **968**).

No example of this formation is found in RV., and in AV. occur only two, *janitavyà* and *hinisitavyà*. In the Brāhmana language it begins to be not rare, and is made both from the simple root and the derived conjugational stems (next chapter); in the classical language it is still more frequent. According to the grammarians, the accent of the word is either circumflex on the final or acute on the penult: thus, *kartavyà* or *kartávya*; in the accentuated texts, it is always the former.

As to the impersonal use of this gerundive, see below, under Passive (999).

965. The suffix aniya is in like manner the product of secondary derivation, made by adding the adjective suffix iya (1215) to a nomen actions formed by the common suffix ana.

It follows, then, as regards its mode of formation, the rules for the suffix ana (below, chap. XVIII.: 1150).

This derivative also is unknown in RV., and in AV. is found only in upajīvaniya and  $\bar{a}mantraniya$  (in both of which, moreover, its distinct gerundive value admits of question). In the Brāhmaņas (where less than a dozen examples of it have been noted), and in the later language, it is much less common than the gerundive in tavya. Its accent, as in all the derivatives with the suffix  $\bar{i}ya$ , is on the penult: thus, karaniya.

966. Other formations of kindred value are found in the Veda as follows:

**a.** Gerundives in tua or tva, apparently made from the infinitival noun in tu with the added suffix a (1209). They are kártua (in two occurrences **bárt**va), jántua, jétua, námtua, váktua, sótua, snátua, hántua, hétua; and, with auxiliary i (or  $\bar{\imath}$ ), jánitva, sánitva, bhávītva.

b. Gerundives in enia or enya (compare 1217): they are idénia, carénia, drcénia, bhūsénya, yudhénia, várenia; with one example from an apparent aorist-stem, yarhsénya, and three or four from secondary verb-stems (see below, 1038).

**c.** Gerundives in *áyia* (once *áyya*: compare 1218): they are *daksáyia*, *panáyia*, vidáyia, *çraváyia*, *hnavāyia*; with a few from causative secondary conjugation-stems (below, chap. XIV.): and *stuséyia* is of close kindred with them.

#### INFINITIVES.

d. A few adjectives in elima, as sacelima, bhidelima (apparently not found in use) are reckoned as gerundives by the grammarians.

967. The division-line between participial and ordinary adjectives is less strictly drawn in Sanskrit than in the other Indo-European languages. Thus, adjectives in u, as will be seen later (chap. XVII.: 1178), from secondary conjugational stems, have participial value; and in the Brāhmanas (with an example or two in AV.) is found widely and commonly used a participial adjective formed with the suffix uka (ibid., 1180).

### Infinitives.

968. The later language has a single infinitive, which is the accusative case of a verbal noun formed by the suffix  $\overline{\eta}$  tu, added to the root usually directly, but often also with aid of the preceding auxiliary vowel  $\overline{\xi}$  i. The form of the infinitive ending, therefore, is  $\overline{\eta}\mu$  tum or  $\overline{\xi}\overline{\eta}\mu$  itum. The root has the guna-strengthening, and is accented. Thus, for example,  $\overline{\xi}\overline{\eta}\mu$  étum from  $\sqrt{\xi}$  i;  $\overline{n}\overline{\eta}\mu$  kártum from  $\sqrt{\overline{\eta}}$ kr;  $\overline{u}\overline{h}\overline{\eta}\mu$  cáritum from  $\sqrt{\overline{u}}\overline{\chi}$  car;  $\overline{u}\overline{h}\overline{\eta}\mu$  bhávitum from  $\sqrt{\overline{\eta}}$  bhū.

The rules as to the use or omission of the auxiliary i are the same as those that apply to the formation of the periphrastic future-noun in  $t_r$  or tar (943).

The same form, in a like use, is found also in the older language, back to its earliest recorded period; but it is there only one of a whole body of related formations, an account of which is in brief as follows:

969. In the Veda and Brāhmana, a number of verbal nouns, nomina actionis, in various of their cases, are used in constructions which assimilate them to the infinitive of other languages — although, were it not for these other later and more developed and pronounced infinitives, the constructions in question might pass as ordinary case-constructions of a somewhat peculiar kind.

970. The nouns thus used infinitively are the following: a. The root-noun, without derivative suffix, is so used in its accusative in am, its dative in e or (from  $\bar{a}$ -roots)  $\bar{a}i$ , its genitive and ablative in as, and its locative in i.

b. The verbal noun in tu is so used in its accusative in tum, its dative in *tave* or  $tav\bar{a}i$ , and its ablative and genitive in *tos*.

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Of other nouns, only single cases, generally datives, are reckoned as used with infinitive value; thus:

c. From the verbal noun in *as*, the dative in *ase*; and also, in an extremely small number of instances, a dative in *se* (or *se*), from a noun formed with *s* simply.

d. From nouns in man and van, datives in mane and vane.

**e.** From nouns in ti, datives in taye, or (from one or two verbs) in  $ty\bar{a}i$ .

f. From nouns in *i*, datives in *dye*.

g. From nouns in dhi and si, datives in dhyāi and syāi.

**h.** A few infinitives in *sani* are perhaps locatives from nouns in *an* added to a root increased by *s*.

i. From a single root, *dhr*, are made infinitively used forms in *thri*, of which the grammatical character is questionable.

Among all these, the forms which have best right to special treatment as infinitives, on account of being of peculiar formation, or from suffixes not found in other uses, or both, are those in se, sami, tari, dhyāi, and tavāi.

Except the various cases of the derivative in *tu*, and of the root-noun, these infinitives are almost wholly unknown outside the Rig-Veda.

Other suffixes and forms than those noticed above might be added; for it is impossible to draw any fixed line between the uses classed as infinitive and the ordinary case-uses; and the so-called infinitives are found coordinated in the same sentence with common nouns, and even with compound nouns.

More special rules as to the various formations are as follows:

971. The root-noun used as infinitive has the same form, and the same accent, both when simple and when combined with prepositions, as in its other uses. In the very great majority of instances, it is made from roots ending in a consonant; but also from a few in  $\bar{a}$  ( $khy\bar{a}$ ,  $d\bar{a}$ ,  $dh\bar{a}$ ,  $p\bar{a}$ ?,  $m\bar{a}$ ,  $y\bar{a}$ ), from two or three in *i* and *u*-vowels (hi,  $m\bar{i}$ ,  $bh\bar{u}$ ), and from one or two in changeable *r*, which takes the *ir*-form (*tir*, *stir*).

The roots in  $\bar{a}$  form the accus. in  $\bar{a}m$  (pratidhdm, AV.), the dat. in  $\bar{a}i$ , the abl. in  $\bar{a}s$  (understanding avas $\dot{a}$  before  $\dot{a}$  as for avas $\dot{a}s$  and not avas $\bar{a}f$  in RV. iii.53.20), and the locative in e (only two examples, of which one is better understood as dative).

972. The infinitive noun in tu is made freely from roots of every form. The root takes the guna-strengthening, if capable of it, and often adds the auxiliary vowel *i* before the suffix (according to the rule already stated, 968). The root is accented, unless the noun be combined with a preposition, in which case the latter has the accent instead: thus, kártum, étave, hántos, but nikartum, níretave, nírhantos.

The dative in  $tav\bar{a}i$  is in two respects anomalous: in having the heavy feminine ending  $\bar{a}i$  along with a strengthened u; and in taking a double accent, one on the root or on the prefixed preposition, and the other on the ending  $\bar{a}i$ : thus,  $\ell tav\bar{a}f$ ,  $h dntav\bar{a}f$ ,  $dtyetav\bar{a}f$ ,  $dpabhartav\bar{a}f$ .

The root grah makes (as in other kindred formations) gráhītu; and long ī is shown also by çárītu, stárītu, hárītu (and compare bhávītva, 966a). INFINITIVES.

973. The infinitive in ase is made in RV. from about twenty-five roots; in AV. and later there have been noted no other examples of it. In near three quarters of the cases, the accent is on the suffix: thus,  $r\tilde{n}j\hat{ase}$ ,  $j\tilde{v}a\hat{se}$ ,  $bhiy\hat{ase}$ ,  $tuj\hat{ase}$ ; the exceptions are  $c\hat{a}ksase$ ;  $dh\hat{a}yase$  (with y inserted before the suffix); and  $\dot{a}yase$ ,  $bh\hat{a}rase$ ,  $sp\hat{a}rase$ ,  $h\hat{a}rase$  (with guna-strengthening of the root). Strengthening of the root is also shown by  $jav\hat{ase}$ ,  $doh\hat{ase}$ ,  $bhoj\hat{ase}$ ,  $cobh\hat{ase}$ . In pusyles is seen, apparently, the present-stem instead of the root.

The ending se is extremely rare, being found only in jisé and perhaps stusé, and one or two still more doubtful cases.

974. Infinitives in mane are made from only five roots: thus, trámane, dámane, dhármane, bhármane, and (with different accent) vidmáne. From  $\sqrt{da}$  comes daváne; turváne may come directly from  $\sqrt{tr}$ , or through the secondary root turv; dhárvane is rather from  $\sqrt{dhūrv}$  than from  $\sqrt{dhvr}$ .

975. The infinitives in taye are istaye ( $\gamma$ is), pītāye ( $\gamma$ is, vītāye, sātāye. In tyāi, the only examples noted are ityāt (RV.) and sādhyāi (AB.).

With aye are formed tujáye, drcáye, maháye, yudháye, sanáye.

976. The ending  $dhy\bar{a}i$  is, more than any other, irregular and various in its treatment. It has always an a before it; and in the majority of cases it is accented upon this a, and added to a weak form of root: thus, cuc*idhyāi*, prņádhyāi, dhiyádhyāi, huvádhyāi. But the form of root is the strong one in a few cases: namely, cayádhyāi, stavádhyāi, tarádhyāi, jarádhyāi, mandádhyāi, vandádhyāi. In half-a-dozen forms, again, the root has the accent: namely, ksáradhyāi, gámadhyāi, yájadhyāi (but once or twice also yajádhyāi), váhadhyāi, sáhadhyāi, bháradhyāi. In a single instance, pfbadhyāi, the suffix is added distinctly to a present-stem; and in one, vāvrdhádhyāi, to a perfect stem. Finally, in a number of instances (ten), this infinitive is made from a causative stem in ay: thus, mādayádhyāi, risayádhyāi, etc.

This infinitive is by no means rare in RV., being made in thirty-five different forms (with seventy-two occurrences). But it is hardly known outside of the RV.; the AV. has it but once (in a passage found also in RV.); and in the branches of the Yajur-Veda but two or three examples have been noticed (one of them TS. falsely reads gámadhye); in the Brāhmaņa language it appears to be entirely wanting.

977. An example or two are met with of an infinitive in syāi: thus, róhisyāi (TS.), avyathisyāi (K.).

978. The infinitives in sani are:  $-bh\bar{u}_s \dot{a}ni$  from  $\gamma bh\bar{u}$ ;  $c\bar{u}_s \dot{a}ni$  from  $\gamma c\bar{u}$ or  $cv\bar{u}$ ; nesani from  $\gamma n\bar{i}$ ; saksani from  $\gamma sah$ ; parsani from  $\gamma pr$ , tarīsani from  $\gamma lr$ ; and grņīsani and -strņīsani from  $\gamma \gamma gr$  and str — the last containing evident present tense-signs (compare the 1st sing. grņīse, 894 d).

979. The only infinitive in tari is dhartari (with its compound vidhartari), from  $\sqrt{dhr}$ .

#### Uses of the Infinitives.

980. The uses of the so-called infinitives are for the most part closely accordant with those of the corresponding cases from other abstract nouns. Thus:

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981. The accusative, which is made only from the rootnoun and the noun in tu, is used as object of a verb.

Especially, of forms from the roots cak, 'be able', and arh, 'be worthy, have the right or the power'. Thus,  $cakéma tv\bar{a} samídham (RV.)$ , 'may we accomplish thy kindling'; má cakan pratidhám fsum (AV.), 'may they not be able to fit the arrow to the string'; máno vá imárh sadyáh páryāptum arhati mánah páribhavitum (TS.), 'the mind, forsooth, can at once attain and surpass her'; kó hy dtásyá 'rhati gúhyam náma gráhītum (CB.), 'for who is worthy to take his secret name?' In the Veda, the construction with these verbs is only one among others; in the Brāhmana, it becomes the greatly prevalent one (three quarters or more of all the cases).

Further, of verbs of motion (next most frequent case): thus,  $ddx_{sin}ani$ hótum eti (TS.), 'he goes to sacrifice things pertaining to sacrificial gifts'; fndram pratiram emy dyuh (RV.), 'I go to Indra for (i. e. beseech of him) the lengthening out of life'; — of Vdhr, 'persist in, undertake': as, sá idám jātáh sárvam evá dágdhum dadhre (CB.), 'he, as soon as born, began to burn this universe'; — of verbs meaning 'desire, hope, notice, know', and the like: as, páçān vicītam vettha sárvān (AV.), 'thou knowest how to loosen all bonds'; tásmād agnim ná "driyeta párihantum (CB.), 'therefore one should not be careful to smother the fire'; — and of others.

982. Of the infinitive datives, the fundamental and usual sense is that expressed by 'for, in order to, for the purpose of'.

Examples are: víçvarh jīvárh caráse bodháyantī (RV.), 'awakening every living creature to motion'; tán úpa yāta píbadhyāi (RV.), 'come to drink them'; nāf 'tárh te devá adadur áttave (AV.), 'the gods did not give her to thee for eating'; prāf "d yudháye dásyum índrah (RV.), 'Indra went forward to fight the demon'; cáksur no dhehi vikhyāf (RV.), 'give us sight for looking abroad'.

Some peculiar constructions, however, grow out of this use of the infinitive dative. Thus:

a. The nonn which is logically the subject or the object of the action expressed by the infinitive is frequently put beside it in the dative (by a construction which is in part a perfectly simple one, but which is stretched beyond its natural boundaries by a kind of attraction): thus,  $cak\bar{a}ra s\bar{u}ry\bar{a}ya$ pânthām ânvetavá u (RV.), 'he made a track for the sun to follow (made for the sun a track for his following)'; cícīte crīnge rāksobhyo viníkše (RV.), 'he whets his horns to pierce the demons'; rudráya dhánur á tanomi brahmadvise cárave hántavá u (RV.), 'I stretch the bow for Rudra, that with his arrow he may slay the brahma-hater'; asmábhyam drcáye sűryāya púnar dātām ásum, 'may they grant life again, that we may see the sun'.

b. An infinitive with  $\gamma kr$ , 'make', is used nearly in the sense of a causative verb: thus,  $pr\dot{a}$  'ndhám cronám cáksasa étave krthah (RV.), 'ye make the blind and lame to see and go'; agním samídhe cakártha (RV.), 'thou hast made the fire to be kindled'. Of similar character is an occasional

construction with another verb: as, yad im uçmási kártave kárat tát (RV.), 'what we wish to be done, may he do that'.

c. A dative infinitive is not seldom used as a predicate, sometimes with, but more usually without, a copula expressed: thus, agnfr iva ná pratidhise bhavati (TS.), 'like fire, he is not to be resisted'; mahimá te anyéna ná samnáce (VS.), 'thy greatness is not to be attained by another'; nákīm indro níkartave ná çakráh páriçaktave (RV.), 'Indra is not to be put down, the mighty one is not to be overpowered'.

d. Sometimes an infinitive so used without a copula has pretty clearly the value of an imperative: thus,  $ty\dot{d}$  me  $yac\dot{a}s\ddot{a}\ldots$   $\ddot{a}uc\dot{a}j\delta$  huvádhy $\ddot{a}i$  [asti] (RV.), 'these glorious ones shall the son of Uçij invoke for me';  $s\ddot{u}kt\dot{c}bhir$  $vah\ldots$  indrā no àgni ávase huvádhy $\ddot{a}i$  [stah] (RV.), 'with your hymns shall ye call now on Indra and Agni for aid';  $vand\dot{d}dhy\ddot{a}$  agnith námobhih [asmi] (RV.), 'let me greet Agni with homage';  $asmák\ddot{a}sac$  ca  $s\ddot{u}r\dot{a}yo$  vicva  $\dot{a}c\ddot{a}s$ tarīsáni (RV.), 'and let our sacrificers cross all regions'. The infinitives in  $dhy\ddot{a}i$  and sani (which latter is in all its uses accordant with datives) are those in which the imperative value is most distinctly to be recognized.

e. In the CB. (with only a sporadic case or two elsewhere) the dative in tavāi is frequently used with a verb signifying 'speak' ( $br\bar{u}$ , vac, ah), to express the ordering of anything to be done: thus, tâsmād ósadhīnām evâ mālāny úcchettavāt brūyāt, 'therefore let him direct the roots of the plants to be cut up (speak in order to cutting up)'.

983. The ablative infinitive — which, like the accusative, is made only from the root-noun and that in tu — is found especially with the prepositions  $\dot{a}$ , 'until', and pur $\dot{a}$ , 'before'.

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In two or three instances, by an attraction similar to that illustrated above for the dative (982 a), a noun dependent on this infinitive is put in the ablative beside it: thus,  $pur\bar{a} v\bar{a}gbhyah$  sampravaditoh (PB.), 'before the utterance together of the voices'; trådhvam kartåd avapådah (RV.), 'save us from falling down into the pit'.

984. The genitive infinitive (having the same form as the ablative) is in common use in the Brāhmana language as dependent on *īçvará*, 'lord, master', employed adjectively in the sense of 'capable' or 'likely' or 'exposed to'.

Examples are:  $t\dot{t}$  [devátāk] īçvará enam pradáhak (TS.), 'they are likely to burn him up'; átha ha vá īçvard 'gníth citvá kíthcid däuritám ápattor ví vā hválitok (ÇB.), 'so in truth he is liable, after piling the fire, to meet with some mishap or other, or to stagger'; īçvaram vāi rathantaram udgātuç cakşuk primathitok (PB.), 'the rathantara is liable to knock out the eye of the chanter'.

The dative is once used in  $\zeta B$ . instead of the genitive (in *i*cvarāá jánayitavāf); and, in the later language, sometimes the accusative in turn. Occasionally the masc. sing. nom. *i*cvarah is used, without regard to the gender or number of the word which it qualifies: thus. tásye "cvaráh prajá pápīyasī bhávitoh ( $\zeta B$ .), 'his progeny is liable to deteriorate'. And in a few instances the word *i*cvara is omitted, and the genitive has the same value without it: thus, dve madhyandinam abhi pratyctos (AB.), 'two may be added to the noon libation'; táto dīksitáh pāmanó bhávitoh ( $\zeta B$ .), 'then the consecrated is liable to get the itch'.

This construction with icvara, which is the only one for the genitive infinitive in the Brähmana, is unknown in the Veda, where the genitive is found in a very small number of examples with madhyá, and with the root ic: thus, madhyá kártoh (RV.), 'in the midst of action'; ice rayó dátoh (RV.), 'he is master of the giving of wealth'.

**985.** Unless the infinitives in sami and tari are locative in form (their uses are those of datives), the locative infinitive is so rare, and has so little that is peculiar in its use, that it is hardly worth making any account of. An example is usise budhi (BV.), 'at the awakening of the dawn'.

986. In the Veda, the dative infinitive forms are very much more numerous than the accusative (in RV., their occurrences are twelve times as many; in AV., more than three times); and the accusative in *tum* is rare (only four forms in RV., only eight in AV.). In the Brāhmanas, the accusative has risen to much greater comparative frequency (its forms are nearly twice as many as those of the dative); but the ablative-genitive, which is rare in the Veda, has also come to full equality with it. The complete disappearance in the classical language of all excepting the accusative in *tum* is a matter for no small surprise.

987. The later infinitive in turn is oftenest used in constructions corresponding to those of the earlier accusative : thus, na vāspam açakat sodhum, 'he could not restrain his tears'; tam drastum arhasi, 'thou oughtest to see it'; prāptum ichanti, 'they desire to obtain'; samkhyātum ārabdham, 'having begun to count'. But also, not infrequently, in those of the other cases. So, especially, of the dative: thus, avasthatum sthanantaram cintaya, 'devise another place to stay in'; tram anvestum iha "gatah, 'he has come hither to seek for thee'; - but likewise of the genitive: thus, samartho gantum, 'capable of going'; samdhatum içvarah, 'able to mend'. Even a construction as nominative is not unknown : thus, yuktam tasya mayā samāçvāsayitum bhāryām (MBh.), 'it is proper for me to comfort his wife'; na naptāram svayam nyāyyam captum evam (R.), 'it is not suitable thus to curse one's own grandson'.

**988.** In the later language, as in the earlier, the infinitive in certain connections has what we look upon as a passive value. Thus, *kartum ārabāha*,

'begun to be made': crotum na yujyate, 'it is not fit to be heard (for hearing)'. This is especially frequent along with the passive forms of  $\gamma$  cak: thus, tyaktum na cakyate, 'it cannot be abandoned'; cakyāv ihā 'netum, 'they two can be brought hither'; na ca vibhūtayah cakyam avāptum ūrjitāh, 'nor are mighty successes a thing capable of being attained'.

### Gerunds.

989. The so-called gerund is a stereotyped case (doubtless instrumental) of a verbal noun, used generally, but in the later language not exclusively, as logical adjunct to the subject of a clause, denoting an accompanying or (usually) a preceding action to that signified by the verb of the clause. It has thus the virtual value of an indeclinable participle, present or past, qualifying the actor whose action it describes:

Thus, for example : *crutvāi 'va cā 'bruvan*, 'and hearing (or having heard) they spoke'; *tebhyah pratijītāyā 'thāi 'tān paripapracha*, 'having given them his promise, he then questioned them'.

990. The gerund is made in the later language by one of the two suffixes  $\overline{e1}$  tr $\overline{a}$  and  $\overline{u}$  ya, the former being used with a simple root, the latter with one that is compounded with a prepositional prefix — or, rarely, with an element of another kind, as adverb or noun.

Exceptions to this distribution of uses between the two suffixes are very rare: examples of simple roots with ya are areya, gyhya, usya ( $\gamma$  vas 'dwell'); of compounded roots with  $tv\bar{a}$  are anudhy $\bar{a}tv\bar{a}$ , apatyaktv $\bar{a}$ , pratyarpayitv $\bar{a}$  (AV.: only case noticed in the Veda: TA. has *-rocayitvā*). The gerund in  $tv\bar{a}$ , however, may have the negative particle prefixed to it: thus, akytv $\bar{a}$ , an $\bar{a}rayitv\bar{a}$ .

Of compounds of the gerund in ya with other elements than the usual verbal prefixes, BV. has punardáya, karnagihya, pādagihya, hastagihya, aramkitya, akkhalīkitya, mithaspidhya; AV. has further namaskitya.

991. The suffix  $\overline{c1}$  to  $\overline{a}$  has the accent. It is usually added directly to the root, but sometimes with interposition of the auxiliary vowel  $\xi i$  — with regard to which, as well as to the form of the root before it, this formation closely agrees with that of the participle in  $\overline{c1}$  ta (above, 952 ff.).

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When i is used, the disposition to take a weak form of root is less marked. Roots which have na instead of ta as participial suffix usually reject the i.

992. The suffix  $\overline{a}$  ya is added directly to the root, which is accented, but has its weak form. A root ending in a short vowel takes  $\overline{c}\overline{a}$  tya instead of  $\overline{a}$  ya: thus,  $\overline{s}_{1}\overline{c}\overline{a}$ -*jitya*,  $\overline{c}_{1}\overline{c}\overline{a}$  -*krtya*.

Roots in am and an whose passive participle ends in ata (954 d) form this |gerund also in atya: thus, -gatya, -katya. But such am-roots are allowed in the later language to preserve their nasal in the gerund: thus, -gamya (no such form occurs in the Veds). Final changeable r becomes  $\bar{r}r$ or  $\bar{u}r$ : thus, - $g\bar{u}rya$ , - $p\bar{u}rya$ . Final  $\bar{a}$  remains unaltered: thus, - $g\bar{a}ya$ , - $sth\bar{a}ya$ ; and mi 'establish' and mi 'diminish' take the form  $m\bar{a}$ ;  $\bar{u}$  'cling' is allowed to do the same.

993. The older language has the same two gerund formations, having the same distinction, and used in the same way.

**a.** In KV., however, the final of ya is in the great majority of instances (fully two thirds) long (as if the instrumental ending of a derivative noun in *i* or *ti*). In AV., long  $\bar{a}$  appears only once, in a BV. passage.

b. Instead of  $tv\bar{a}$  alone, the Veda has three forms of the suffix, namely  $tv\dot{a}$ ,  $tv\dot{a}ya$ , and  $tv\bar{t}$ . Of these three,  $tv\bar{t}$  is decidedly the commonest in RV. (thirty-five occurrences, against twenty-one of  $tv\bar{a}$ ); but it is unknown in AV., and very rare elsewhere in the older language;  $tv\dot{a}ya$  is found nine times in RV. (only once outside the tenth Book), twice in AV., and but few times elsewhere. The historical relation of the three forms is obscure.

c. Two other gerund suffixes, tvānam and tvīnam, are mentioned by the grammarians as of Vedic use, but they have nowhere been found actually to occur.

994. The use of this gerund, through not changing in its character, becomes much more frequent, and even excessive, in the later language.

Thus, in the Nala and Bhagavad-Gītā, which have only one tenth as many verb-forms as RV., there are more than three times as many examples of the gerund as in the latter.

Early examples are: vájrena hatvá nír apáh sasarja (RV.), 'striking with his thunderbolt, be poured forth the waters'; stríyam drstváya kitavám tatāpa (BV.), 'the gambler is distressed when he sees a woman'; pītví sómasya vāvyahe (RV.), 'having drunk of the soma, he waxed strong'. In the older language almost without exception, and in the later usually, it expresses an action or condition belonging to the subject of the sentence; but it is in some texts more loosely construed: thus, tatah çabdād abhijñāya sa vyāghreņa hatah (H.), 'thereupon he was slain by the tiger, the latter having recognized him by his noise'; kim nu me syād idam krtvā (MBh.), 'what, I wonder,

would happen to me, having done this?' sucintya co 'ktam suvicārya yat krtam (H., 'what is said after mature thought, and done after full deliberation'.

#### Adverbial Gerund in am.

995. The accusative of a derivative nomen action is in a, used adverbially, assumes sometimes a value and construction so accordant with that of the usual gerund that it cannot well be called by a different name.

No example of a peculiar gerundial construction with such a form occurs either in RV. or AV., although a few adverbial accusatives are probably to be classed as representing this formation: thus,  $abhy\bar{a}kramam$ ,  $prata\bar{n}kam$ , pranodam, nildyam, abhiskandam. The gerund is found especially in the Brāhmaņas (much oftenest in ÇB.), and sparingly later. In the classical language it is quite rare.

A final vowel has vyddhi-strengthening before the suffix; final  $\bar{a}$  adds y; a medial vowel has guna; but medial a is usually lengthened. The accent is on the radical syllable.

Examples are: kắmam vấ imány áñgāni vyatyásam cete (ÇB.), 'he lies changing the position of these limbs at pleasure'; úttarām-uttarām cákhām samātámbham róhet (ÇB.), 'he would climb, taking hold of a higher and ever a higher limb'; aparīşu mahānāgām ivā 'bhisamsáram didrksitárah (ÇB.), 'hereafter, running together as it were about a great snake, they will wish to see him'; námāny āsām etáni nāmagráham (ÇB.), 'with separate naming of these their names'; yó viparyásam avagúhati (ÇB.), 'whoever buries it upside down'. As in these examples, the form is almost always a compound one. In the later language, it it said to be used most often repeated: thus, pāyam-pāyam vrajati, 'he goes after drinking repeatedly'; prathamam bhojam vrajati, 'having first eaten, he goes'; bāhūtkşepam kranditum pravŗttā (Çak.), 'she proceeded to cry, throwing up her arms (with arm-tossing)'.

# CHAPTER XIV.

### DERIVATIVE OR SECONDARY CONJUGATION.

996. SECONDARY conjugations are those in which a whole system of forms, like that already described as made from the simple root, is made, with greater or less completeness, from a derivative conjugation-stem; and is also usually connected with a certain definite modification of the original radical sense.

Whitney, Grammar.

We have seen, indeed, that the tense-systems are also for the most part made from derivative-stems; and even that, in some cases, such stems assume the appearance and value of roots, and are made the basis of a complete conjugational system. Nor is there any distinct division-line to be drawn between tense-systems and derivative conjugations — the latter are presentsystems which have been expanded into conjugations by the addition of other tenses, and of participles, infinitives, and so on. In the earliest language, their forms outside of the present-system are still quite rare, hardly more than sporadic; and even later they are — with the exception of one or two formations which attain a comparative frequency — much less common than the corresponding forms of primary conjugation.

997. The secondary conjugations are: I. Passive; II. Intensive; III. Desiderative; IV. Causative; V. Denominative.

The passive is classed here rather as a matter of convenience and of general usage than because it is of the same kind with the others.

### I. Passive.

998. The passive conjugation has been already in the main described. Thus, we have seen that:

a. It has a special present-system, the stem of which is present only, and not made the basis of any of the remaining forms: this stem is formed with the accented classsign  $\overline{a}$  yá, and it takes the middle endings. It is treated above, 768 ff.

b. In the other tenses, the middle forms are used also in a passive sense. But:

c. There is a special passive 3d sing. of the aorist, ending in  $\overline{3}$  i: it is treated above, 842 ff. And:

d. According to the grammarians, there may be formed from some verbs, for passive use, a special stem for the aorist and the two future systems, coinciding in form with the peculiar 3d sing. aorist.

Thus: from  $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$  (aor. 3d sing.  $ad\bar{a}yi$ ), beside  $\delta d\bar{a}si$ ,  $d\bar{a}sy \in$ ,  $d\bar{a}td\bar{a}h$ , also  $\delta d\bar{a}yisi$ ,  $d\bar{a}yisi \in$ ,  $d\bar{a}yit \delta he$ . The permission to make this double formation extends to all roots ending in vowels, and to grah, dry, and han. The duplicate forms have not been noticed in the older language, and they are. at the best, extremely rare in the later.

As to the prescribed passive inflection of the periphrastic perfect, see below, 1072.

PASSIVE; INTENSIVE.

e. Besides the participle from the present tense-stem (771.5), the passive has a past participle in  $\overline{n}$  ta (952), or  $\overline{n}$  na (957), and future participles, or gerundives, of various formation (961 ff.), made directly from the root.

999. The passive construction, with the logical subject in the instrumental case, is a frequent and favorite one, especially in the later language: thus, evam uktvā tena sarvesām bandhanāni chittāni (H.), 'thus saving, he cut the bonds of them all'. And, extremely frequently, an impersonal passive in the third person is used; and it may (as in other languages) be formed from intransitive as well as transitive verbs: thus, cruyatam, 'let it be heard' (i. e. hear ye!), ihā "gamyatām, 'come hither'; sarvāir jālam ādāyo 'ddīvatām (H.), 'let all fly up, taking the net with them'; tac chrutvā jaradgaveno 'klam, 'hearing that, Jaradgava said'; katham jivitavyam, 'how is one to live?' yāvad anena muninā sthātavyam (H.), 'as long as that sage shall exist'. The predicate to the instrumental subject of such a construction is, of course, also in the instrumental: thus, adhunā tavā 'nucareņa mayā sarvathā bhavitavyam (H.), 'henceforth I shall always be thy companion'; tena tvayā yāvajjīvam sukhinā bhavitavyam (H.), 'with that thou shalt be happy as long as thou livest'. The gerundive is common in this construction, and not seldom it has a purely future sense.

## II. Intensive.

1000. The intensive (sometimes also called frequentative) is that one of the secondary conjugations which is least removed from the analogy of formations already described. It is, like the present-system of the second conjugation-class (642 ff.), the inflection of a reduplicated stem, but of one that is peculiar in having a strengthened reduplication. It is decidedly less extended beyond the limits of a present-system than any other of the derivative conjugations.

The intensive conjugation signifies the repetition or intensification of the action expressed by the primary conjugation of a root.

1001. According to the grammarians, the intensive conjugation may be formed from nearly all the roots in the language — the exceptions being: roots of more than one

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syllable, those conjugated only causatively (below, 1056), and in general those beginning with a vowel.

In fact, however, intensives in the later language are extremely rare, so rare that it is hard to tell precisely what value is to be given to the rules of the native grammar respecting them. Nor are they at all common earlier, except (comparatively) in the RV., which contains about six sevenths of the whole number (rather over a hundred) quotable from Veda and Brāhmaņa-texts (AV. has less than half as many as RV., and many of these in RV. passages).

Hence, in the description to be given below, the actual aspect of the formation, as exhibited in the older language, will be had primarily and especially in view; and the examples will be of forms found there in use.

1002. The strong intensive reduplication is made in three different ways:

**a.** The reduplicating syllable is, as elsewhere, composed of a single consonant with following vowel, and, so far as the consonant is concerned, follows the rules for present and perfect reduplication (590); but the vowel is a heavy one, radical a and r (or ar) being reduplicated with  $\bar{a}$ , an *i*-vowel by e, and an *u*-vowel by o.

Examples are: vāvad, būbadh, çūçvas, rārandh; dādr, dādhr; cekit, tetij, nenī, vevlī; çoçuc, popruth, cosku, johū.

**b.** The reduplicating syllable has a final consonant, taken from the end of the root. With an exception or two, this consonant is either r (or its substitute l) or a nasal.

Examples are: carcar, calcal, sarsr, marm $\tau j$ , jarh $\tau s$ ; cañkram, jañghan, tañstan, dandaç ( $\gamma$  danç or daç), jañjabh ( $\gamma$  jambh or jabh), tantas ( $\gamma$  tañs or tas), nannam ( $\gamma$  nam).

Only roots having a or r as vowel make this form of reduplication, but with such roots it is more common than either of the other forms.

Irregular formations of this class are: with a final other than r or n in the reduplication, badbadh; with a final nasal in the reduplication which is not found in the root,  $ja\bar{n}gah$  (RV.),  $ja\bar{n}jap$  (CB.: and the later language has dandah); with an anomalous initial consonant in reduplication, jarbhur from  $\gamma bhr$  (compare the Vedic perfect  $jabh\bar{a}ra$ , 789 b); with various treatment of an r or ar-element, dardar and dardir, carkar and carkir, tartar and tartur, carcar and carcur, jargur and jalgul and galgul.

The root r is the only one with vowel initial forming an intensive stem in the older language: it makes the irregular alar or alr.

**c.** The reduplication is dissyllabic, an *i*-vowel being added after a final consonant of the reduplicating syllable. This *i*-vowel is in the older language short before a double consonant, and long before a single.

Examples are: ganiyam (but ganigmatam), variert, vaniväh, caniskad,

INTENSIVE.

sanisvan; navīnu, davidyut (and the participles dávidhvat but távītuat). A single exception as to the quantity of the *i* is davidhāva.

This method of reduplication is followed in the older language by over twenty roots. Thus, of roots having final or penultimate n (once m), and nin the reduplicating syllable, pan, phan, san, svan, han; gam; krand, ccand, skand, syand; of roots having final or medial r, and r in the reduplicating syllable, kr 'make', tr, bhr, vr, mrd, vrj, vrt; — further, of roots assuming in the reduplication a n not found in the root, only vah (CB.: the grammarians allow also kas, pat, pad); finally, of roots having u or  $\bar{u}$  as radical vowel, with av before the *i*-vowel, tu,  $dh\bar{u}$ , nu, dyut.

In this class, the general rules as to the form of the reduplicating consonant (590) are violated in the case of *ghanighan* and *bharibhr*, and of *ganigam*, karikr (but the regular carikr also occurs), kanikrand, and kaniskand (but also caniskand occurs).

The reversion to more original guttural form after the reduplication in *cekit*, and *janghan* and *ghanighan*, is in accordance with what takes place elsewhere (216.9).

1003. The same root is allowed to form its intensive stem in more than one way.

Thus, in the older language,  $d\bar{a}dr$ , and dardr;  $d\bar{a}dhr$ , and dardhr;  $c\bar{a}cal$ and carcar (and carcur); tartar (and tartur) and  $tar\bar{t}r$ ;  $ja\bar{n}ghan$  and  $ghan\bar{t}ghan$ ; varvit and varivit; jarbhur and bharibhr;  $dodh\bar{u}$  and  $dav\bar{t}dh\bar{u}$ ; nonu and navinu;  $b\bar{a}badh$  and badbadh.

1004. The model of normal intensive inflection is the present-system of the reduplicating conjugation-class (II.); and this is indeed to a considerable extent followed, in respect to endings, strengthening of stem, and accent. But deviations from the model are not rare; and the forms are in general of too infrequent occurrence to allow of satisfactory classification and explanation.

The most marked irregularity is the frequent insertion of an  $\xi \bar{i}$  between the stem and ending. According to the grammarians, this is allowed in all the strong forms before an ending beginning with a consonant; and before the  $\xi \bar{i}$  a final vowel has guna-strengthening, but a medial one remains unchanged.

### Present System.

1005. We will take up the parts of the present-system in their order, giving first what is recognized as regular in the

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later language, and then showing how the formation appears in the earlier texts. As most grammarians do not allow a middle inflection, and middle forms are few even in the Veda, no attempt will be made to set up a paradigm for the middle voice.

1008. As example of inflection may be taken the root विद्*vid*, of which the intensive stem is चेविद्*vevid*, or, in strong forms, वेवेद्*véved*.

Neither from this nor any other root are more than a few scattering forms actually quotable.

#### 1. Present Indicative. 1 वेवेमि, वेविदीमि a वेविद्यम् वेविग्रम vévedmi, vévidimi vevidvás vevidmás 2 वेवेत्सि, वेविरीपि vévetsi, vévidiși वेवित्यम् वेवित्य vevitthás vevitthá वेवित्तम् 3 वेवेत्ति, वेविटीति वेविरति vévetti. vévidīti vévidati vevittás

From V क्र hu, the singular forms with auxiliary vowel would be जोक्वोमि johavimi, जोक्वोपि johavisi, जोक्वीति johaviti.

1007. The forms found in the older language agree in general with the paradigm. Examples are: 1st sing., carkarni, veveșmi; 2d sing., alarși, dârdarși; 3d sing., âlarii, veveți, nenekti, jañghanti, kânikrantti, ganîganti; 3d du., jarbhŗtás; 1st pl., nonumas; 3d pl., nānadati, bharibhrati, várvŗtati, dâvidyutati, nénijati; and, with the auxiliary vowel, jóhavīmi, cākaçīmi; cákaçīti, nónavīti, dardarīti, jarbhurīti. No stem with dissyllabic reduplication takes the auxiliary  $\bar{\imath}$  in any of its forms. AV. has jāgráti, with irregular accent.

A single dual form with i and strong stem occurs: namely, tartarithas.

The middle forms found to occur are: 1st sing., jóguve, nenije; 3d sing., nenikté, sarsyte; and, with irregular accent, tétikte, dédiste; with irregular union-vowel, nánnate; with ending e instead of te, jáñgahe, jóguve, yoyuve, bābadhe, and (with irregular accent) badbadhé; 3d du., sarsyāte; 3d pl., dédiçate.

#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

1008. Subjunctive forms with primary endings are extremely rare: there have been noticed only  $ja\bar{n}gh\dot{a}n\bar{a}ni$ ,  $j\bar{a}gar\bar{a}si$  (AV.); and, in the middle, *tantasāfte* (3d du.).

Forms with secondary endings are more frequent: thus, 2d sing., jan-

ghanas, jalgulas; 3d sing., jāgarat, cárkrşat, jánghanat, bárbrhat, mármrjat, mármrçat, parpharat, dardirat, canişkadat, davidyutat, sanişvanat; 1st du., janghanāva; 1st pl., carkirāma, vevidāma; 3d pl., pápatan, cócucan, carkiran; and, with double mode-sign, cákaçān (AV.). Besides these, rāráņas and rāráņat, cākánas and cākánat and cākánāma, which their accent assimilates

rather to perfect mode-forms with long reduplication, like  $m\bar{a}m\dot{a}has$  and  $s\bar{a}s\dot{a}hat$  etc. (810 a). Of the middle are found only 3d persons plural: thus,  $j\dot{a}\bar{n}ghananta$ , jarkrsanta, marmrjanta, nonuvanta, cocucanta; and cākānanta (and cakananta once).

# 3. Present Optative.

1009. This mode would show the unstrengthened stem, with the usual endings (566), accented. Thus:

		d.	p.
•	वेविम्बाम	वेविग्वाव	वेविम्बाम
	~		
	vevidyām	vevidyáva	vevidyáma
	etc.	etc.	etc.

The optative is represented by only an example or two in the older language: thus, active, vevisyāt (AV.),  $j\bar{a}g_{\bar{I}}y\bar{a}t$  (AB.); RV. has only  $c\bar{a}kany\bar{a}t$  (pft.?); middle, nenijīta (K.).

### 4. Present Imperative.

1010. The regular forms of the imperative, including the usual subjunctive first persons, would be as follows:

1	वेविदानि 	^{ब.} वेविदाव	^{₽.} वेविदाम
	vévidāni	vévidāva	vévidāma
2	वेविद्धि	वेवित्तम्	वेवित्त
	veviddhi	vevittám	vevittá
3	वेवेत्तु, वेविरीतु	वेवित्ताम्	वेविदत्
	vévettu, véviditu	vevittåm	vévidatu

1011. Older imperative forms are less rare than optative. The first persons have been given above (*jaīghánāni*, the only accented example, does not correspond with the model, but is in conformity with the subjunctive of the reduplicating present); the proper imperatives are: 2d sing.,  $d\bar{a}drhf$ , dardrhi, carkrdhi, *jāgrhi*, nenigdhi, and rūranddhf, rārandhf, cākandhi, rāvandhf; the ending tāt is found in carkrtāt and jāgrtāt; and the latter (as was pointed out above, 570) is used in AV. as first person sing.; *harbrhi* shows an elsewhere unparalleled loss of k before the ending hi; 3d sing., vevesiu, dardartu, marmartu, and rūrantu; 2d du., jāgrtām; 3d du., jūgrtām; 2d pl., jāgrtā, and rāranta; caākantu (RV., once) has an anomalous union-vowel; 3d pl., only the anomalous cākantu (RV., once), apparently for cākanatu. In the middle voice is found only nenikyva (QB.). Of imperative forms with auxiliary  $\bar{i}$ , RV. has none; AV. has vāvadītu and johavītu, and such are sometimes found in the Brāhmaņas; AV. has also, against rule, tanstanīhi and janghanīhi.

### 5. Present Participle.

1012. The intensive participles, both active and middle, are comparatively common in the older language. They are formed and inflected like those of the reduplicating present, and have the accent on the reduplicating syllable.

Examples are: active, cákaçat, nánadat, cékitat, mémyat, çóçucat, róruvat, dárdrat, mármrjat, jáñghanat, nánnamat, pánīphanat, kánikradat, dávidyutat; — middle, bábadhāna, mémyāna, cékitāna, yóyuvāna, rórucāna, járbhurāna, sársrāna, nánnamāna, dándaçāna. No middle participle shows the dissyllabic reduplication.

1013. On account of their accent,  $r\bar{a}rah\bar{a}n\dot{a}$ ,  $r\bar{a}rahs\bar{a}n\dot{a}$ , and  $j\bar{a}hrs\bar{a}n\dot{a}$ (beside jarhrszna) are probably to be regarded as perfect participles, although no other perfect forms with heavy reduplication from the same roots occur. The inference is, however, rendered uncertain by the unmistakably intensive badbadhzna and marmrjūna (beside marmrjūna).

The RV. has once já $\bar{n}ghnatas$ , gen. sing., with root-vowel cast out; kánikrat appears to be used once for kánikradat; if  $c\bar{a}k\acute{a}t$  is to be referred to  $\gamma k\bar{a}$  (Grassmann), it is the only example of an intensive from a root in  $\bar{a}$ , and its accent is anomalous. Marmycantas (AB.) is probably a false reading.

#### 6. Imperfect.

1014. The imperfect is regularly inflected as follows:

	^{*.} स्रवेविरम्	ब. म्रवेविद्व	म्रवेविस
1	ávevidam	ávevidva	ávevidma
2	म्रवेवेत्, म्रवेविरीम्	म्रवेवित्तम्	म्रवेवित्त
	ávevet, ávevidis	ávevittam	ávevitta
8	म्रवेवेत्, म्रवेविरीत्	म्रवेवित्ताम्	म्रवेविडुस्
	avevet, avevidīt	ávevittām	ávevidus 🗋

1015. The imperfect forms found in the earlier texts are not numerous. They are, including those from which the augment is omitted, as follows: in active, 1st sing., acākaçam, dediçam; 2d sing., ajāgar, adardar, dárdar, cākán; 3d sing., adardar, adardhar, avarīvar, dardar, kánişkan, dávidyot, návīnot, and cākán and rārán; 2d du., adardītam; 1st pl., marmījīmā; 3d pl., arāraņus, anannamus, adardīrus, acarkījus, ájohavus, anonavus: and, with auxiliary ī, in 3d sing., ávāvacīt, ávāvarīt, áyoyavīt, ároravīt, ájohavīt; and, irregularly, in 3d du., avāvacītām. The middle forms are extremely few: namely, 3d sing., *ádedista*, *ánannata* (with loss of the final radical in a weak form of root); 3d pl. marmejata, and avāvaçanta (which, if it belongs here, shows a transfer to an *a*-stem).

1016. Derivative Middle Inflection. From every intensive stem, as above described, may be formed in the present-system a further derivative conjugation which is formally identical with a passive, being made by the accented sign  $\overline{u}$  yá, along with middle endings only. It has not, however, a passive value, but is in meaning and use indistinguishable from the simpler conjugation.

A final vowel before this ya is treated as before the passivesign ya (770).

The inflection is precisely like that of any other stem ending in a in the middle voice: thus, from  $\gamma mrj$ , intensive stem marmrjj, is made the present indicative marmrjyé, marmrjyáse, marmrjyáte, etc.; optative marmrjyéya, marmrjyéthās, marmrjyéta, etc.; imperative marmrjyásva, marmrjyátām, etc.; participle marmrjyámāna; imperfect ámarmrjye, ámarmrjyathās, ámarmrjyata, etc.; subjunctive forms do not occur.

1017. This kind of intensive inflection is said to be much more usual than the other in the later language; in the earlier, it is comparatively rare.

In RV., yá-forms are made from eight roots, five of which have also forms of the simpler conjugation; the AV. adds one more; the other earlier texts (so far as observed) only twelve more, and half of them have likewise forms of the simpler conjugation. Thus: from  $\gamma mrj$ , marmrjyåte etc., and marīmrjyeta; from  $\gamma tr$ , tartūryante; from  $\gamma car, carcūryâmāņa;$  from  $\gamma nī$ , nenīyéran etc.; from  $\gamma vc$ , vevīyate; from  $\gamma rih$ , rerihyâte etc.; from  $\gamma vij$ , vevijyâte; from  $\gamma sku$ , coškūyâse etc.; from  $\gamma dic$ , dediçyate; from  $\gamma kāc$ , cākaçyâte; from  $\gamma vad$ , vāvadyâmāna; from  $\gamma nam$ , nannamyadhvam; from  $\gamma vah$ , vanīvāhyéta etc. (with lengthened root-vowel, elsewhere unknown); from  $\gamma krand$ , kanikradyâmāna; from  $\gamma vrt$ , varīvartyâmāna (ÇB.: should be varīvrty-); from  $\gamma mrc$ , amarīmrçyanta (ÇB.? the text reads amarīmrtryanta); from  $\gamma yup$ , yoyupyânte etc.; from  $\gamma nud$ , anonudyanta; from  $\gamma vlī$ , avevlīyanta; from  $\gamma jabh$ , jañjabhyâte etc.; from  $\gamma jap$ , jañjapyâmāna.

### Perfect.

1018. The grammarians are at variance as to whether a perfect may be formed directly from the intensive stem,

1018]

or whether only a periphrastic perfect (below, 1070 ff.) is to be admitted.

In the older language, no example of an intensive periphrastic perfect has come to light. A few unmistakable perfect forms are made from the intensively reduplicated root in RV.: namely, davidhāva and nónāva, 3d sing., and nonuvus, 3d pl., and TS. has once dodrāva. To these may be added jāgara 1st sing. and jāgára 3d sing.: but as to these, see below, 1020.

### Aorist, Future, etc.

1019. As to the remaining parts of a full verbal conjugation, also, the grammarians are not agreed (occurrences of such forms, apparently, being too rare to afford even them any basis for rules); in general, it is allowed to treat the intensive stem further as a root in filling up the scheme of forms, using always the auxiliary vowel  $\xi i$  where it is ever used in the simple conjugation.

Thus, from  $\gamma$  vid, intensive stem vevid, would be made the aorist avevidisam with precative vevidyāsam, the futures vevidisāmi and veviditāsmi, the participles vevidita, veviditavya, etc., the infinitive veviditām, and the gerunds vevidita and -vevidya. And, where the intensive conjugation is the derivative middle one, the aorist and futures would take the corresponding middle form.

Of all this, in the ancient language, there is hardly a trace. The RV. has cárkrze, 3d sing. mid., of a formation like hise and stugé (894 d), and the gerundives vitantasáyya, and marm; jénya and vāv; dhénya; and ÇB. has the participle vanivāhitá, and the infinitive dédiyitavāt. As to jāgarisyánt and jāgaritá, see the next paragraph.

1020. There are systems of inflection of certain roots, the intensive character of which is questioned or questionable. Thus:

The root gr (or gar) 'wake' has from the first no present-system save one with intensive reduplication; and its intensive stem,  $j\bar{a}gr$ , begins early to assume the value of a root, and form a completer conjugation; while by the grammarians this stem is reckoned as if simple and belonging to the rootclass (I.), and is inflected throughout accordingly. Those of its forms which occur in the older language have been given along with the other intensives above. They are, for the present-system, the same with those acknowledged as regular later. The older perfect is like the other intensive perfects found in RV.: namely,  $j\bar{a}gara$  etc., with the participle  $j\bar{a}grv\bar{a}ns$ ; and a future,  $j\bar{a}garisyánt$ , and a passive participle  $j\bar{a}garitá$  are met with in the Brähmanas. The old aorist (RV.) is the usual reduplicated or so-called causative aorist: thus,  $\delta_j\bar{j}gar$ . The grammarians give it in the later language a perfect with additional reduplication,  $jaj\bar{a}g\bar{a}ra$  etc., an *is*-aorist,  $aj\bar{a}garisam$ , with precative  $j\bar{a}gary\bar{a}sam$ , and everything else that is needed to make up a complete conjugation.

1021. The stem *irajya* (active only), 'regulate', from which a number of forms are made in RV., has been viewed as an intensive from  $\gamma$  raj or rj. It lacks, however, any analogy with the intensive formation. The same is true of *iradh*, 'propitiate' (only *iradhanta* and *irádhyāi*, apparently for *iradhadhyāi*).

The middle stem fya, not infrequent in the oldest language, is usually called an intensive of Vi 'go', but with very doubtful propriety, as it has no analogy of form with any intensives. The isolated 1st pl. *imake*, common in RV., is also of questionable character.

1022. The root li 'totter', with constant intensive reduplication, leli, is quite irregular in inflection and accent: thus, pres., leláyati and leläyate pples leläyánti and leláyatas (gen. sing.) and leläyamāna, impf. aleläyat, alelet and aleliyata.

1023. The RV. anomalous form dart (or dard), 2d and 3d sing. from  $\sqrt{dr}$  or dar, is ;doubtfully referred to the intensive, as if abbreviated from dardar. RV. has once avarious (or -vur) where the sense requires a form from  $\sqrt{vrt}$ , as `avarivrtus. The form rarānātā (RV., once) seems corrupt.

1024. A marked intensive or frequentative meaning is not always easily to be traced in the forms classed as intensive; and in some of them it is quite effaced. Thus, the roots *cit*, *nij*, *viş* use their intensive present-system as if it were an ordinary conjugation-class; nor is it otherwise with *randh*, *ran*, *kan* (of which, as noticed above, the forms admit of being referred to the perfect-system), and with  $g_r$   $(j\bar{a}g_r)$ . The grammarians reckon the inflection of *nij* and *viş* as belonging to the reduplicating present-system (II.), with irregularly strengthened reduplication; and they treat in the same way *vic* and *vij*;  $j\bar{a}gr$ , as we have seen, they account a simple root.

Also daridrā, intensive of  $\sqrt{dr\bar{a}}$  'run', is made by the grammarians a simple root, and furnished with a complete set of conjugational forms: as dadaridrāu; adaridrāvīt, etc. etc. It does not occur in the older language. The so-called root vevī 'fintter' is a pure intensive.

1025. It is allowed by the grammarians to make from the intensive stem also a passive, desiderative, causative, and so on: thus, from vevid, pass. vevidyé; desid. vévidişāmi; caus. vevidáyāmi; desid. of causative, véridayişāmi. But such formations are not found in the older language, and, if they occur at all, are excessively rare in the later.

# III. Desiderative.

1026. By the desiderative conjugation is signified a desire for the action or condition denoted by the simple root: thus, पिवामि *pibāmi*, 'I drink', desid. पिपासामि *pipāsāmi*, 'I wish to drink'; जीवामि *jivāmi*, 'I live', desid. जिज्ञीविषामि *jijiviṣāmi*, 'I desire to live'. Such a conjugation is allowed to be formed from any simple root in the language, and also from any causative stem.

The desiderative conjugation, although its forms outside the present-system are extremely rare in the oldest language, is earlier and more fully expanded into a whole verbal system than the intensive. Its forms are also of increasing frequency: much fewer than the intensives in RV., more numerous in the Brāhmaņas and later; not one third of the whole number of roots (about ninety) noted as having a desiderative conjugation in Veda and Brāhmaṇa have such in RV.

1027. The desiderative stem is formed from the simple root by the addition of two characteristics: **a**. a reduplication, which always has the accent; **b**. an appended  $\exists sa$  — which, however (like the tense-signs of aorist and future, sometimes takes before it the auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i*, becoming  $\exists \forall i a$ .

1028. The root in general remains unchanged; but with the following exceptions:

**a.** A final *i* or *u* is lengthened before sa: thus, cikṣīṣa, cikīṣa, jigīṣa; çuçrūṣa, juhūṣa.

b. A final r becomes ir or  $\bar{u}r$  before sa: thus, cikirşa, sisirşa, jihirşa; bubhūrşa, tustūrşa (the only examples noted from the older texts).

**c.** Before *isa*, the same finals necessarily, and a penultimate i or u or r optionally, have the *guna*-strengthening (no examples are quotable from the older texts).

More special exceptions are :

d. A few roots in  $\bar{a}$  weaken this vowel to  $\bar{i}$  or even *i*: thus, pipia (beside pipāsa) from  $\gamma p \bar{a}$  'drink', jihīşa (AV.) from  $\gamma h \bar{a}$  'remove' (jihīte: 664); didhişa (beside dhitsa) from  $\gamma dh \bar{a}$ .

**6.** A few roots in an or am lengthen the vowel: thus, jigansa (beside *jigamisa*) from  $\gamma$  gam; jighansa from  $\gamma$  han; mimansa from  $\gamma$  man; and  $\gamma$  tan is said to make *titansa*.

**f.** Reversion to guttural form of an initial after the reduplication is seen in *cikişa* from  $\gamma ci$ , *cikitsa* from  $\gamma cit$ , *jigīşa* from  $\gamma ji$ , *jighānsa* from  $\gamma han$ ; and  $\gamma hi$  is said to make *jighīşa*.

g. The roots van and san make viv $\bar{a}sa$  and  $sis\bar{a}sa$ , from the root-forms  $v\bar{a}$  and  $s\bar{a}$ .

h. The root  $j\bar{v}v$  forms  $jujv\bar{u}sa$  (CB.:  $jij\bar{v}visa$ , VS.); and the other roots in  $\bar{v}v$  (or iv: 765) are required to make the same change before sa, and to have guna before isa: thus, susyūsa or sisevisa. Svap forms susupsa. Dhūrv forms dudhūrsa.

i. Initial s is usually left unchanged to s after the reduplication when the desiderative sign has s (184 c): thus,  $sisa\bar{n}ksa$  (CB.:  $\gamma sa\bar{n}j$ ), and susyūsa and sisanisa, according to the grammarians.

k. Further may be mentioned as prescribed by the grammarians: nina $\bar{n}ksa$  (or ninacisa) from  $\gamma$ nac, 'perish'; mim $\bar{n}ksa$  from  $\gamma$ majj; mim $\bar{a}r$ jisa (or mimrksa) from  $\gamma mrj$ .

1029. The consonant of the reduplication follows the general rules (590); the vowel is  $\xi i$  if the root has an *a*-vowel, or  $\overline{\pi} r$ , or an *i*-vowel; it is  $\exists u$  if the root has an *u*-vowel. But:

a. A few roots have a long vowel in the reduplicating syllable: thus,  $b\bar{b}bhatsa$  from  $\gamma badh$  or  $b\bar{a}dh$ ;  $m\bar{m}a\bar{n}sa$  from  $\gamma man$ ; and  $t\bar{u}t\bar{u}rsa$  (RV.) from  $\gamma tur$ .

b. From  $\gamma a_c$  is made (in CB).  $a_cicisa$  (with a mode of reduplication like that followed sometimes in the reduplicating aorist: **862**). The grammarians give other cases of the same kind: thus, arjinisa from  $\gamma arh$ , *iciksisa* from  $\gamma iks$ , undidiga from  $\gamma und$ , ardidhisa from  $\gamma rdh$ . In the older language,  $a_c$  is the only root with initial vowel which forms a desiderative stem, except  $\bar{a}p$  and rdh, which have abbreviated stems: see the next paragraph.

c. RV. has the stems *inakya* and *iyakya*, regarded as desideratives from  $\gamma \gamma nac$  'attain' and *yaj*, with mutilated reduplication.

1030. A number of roots, including some of very common use, form an abbreviated stem apparently by a contraction of reduplication and root together into one syllable: thus,  $\frac{1}{5}$  cf ipsa from  $\sqrt{3}$  row  $\sqrt{3}$ 

Such abbreviated stems are found in the older language as follows: dhitsa (beside didhisa) from  $\gamma dh\bar{a}$ ; ditsa (beside didūsa) from  $\gamma d\bar{a}$ ; dipsa from  $\gamma dabh$ ; cikšī from  $\gamma cak$ ; sīkša from  $\gamma sah$ : these are found in RV.; in AV. are added īpsa from  $\gamma \bar{a}p$  (RV. has apsa once), and *irtsa* from  $\gamma rdh$ : the other texts turnish lipsa (ÇB.) or līpsa (TB.) from  $\gamma labh$ , ripsa (GB.) from  $\gamma rabh$ , pitsa ÇB.; from  $\gamma pad$ , and dhīkša (ÇB.) from  $\gamma dabh$ , instead of dipsa; they form marians prescribe dhipsa or dhīpsa from  $\gamma dabh$ , instead of dipsa; they form pilsa from  $\gamma pat$  as well as pad; and they add ritsa from  $\gamma radh$ , jffipsa `beside jijāapayiša) from the causative quasi-root jāap (below, 1042 e), and mitsa from  $\gamma / m\bar{a}$  and mī and mi: this last could be only an anomalous formation, made after the analogy of the others. Also moke is reckoned as a desiderative stem from  $\gamma$  muc (it is denominative, rather).

1031. The use of the auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i* is quite rare in the early language, but more common later; and it is allowed or prescribed by the grammarians in many stems which have not yet been found in actual use.

It is declared to follow in general, though not without exceptions, necessary or optional, the analogy of the futures (984, 943).

No example of the use of *i* is found in RV., and only one each in AV. (*pipatişa*), VS. (*jijīvişa*), and TS. (*jigcmişa*). The other examples noted in the early texts are acicisa, cikramişa, jigrahīşa (with  $\hat{\imath}$  for *i*, as elsewhere in this root), cicarişa, jijanişa, didīksisa, bibādhişa, rirādhişa, vividişa, jihinsişa: most of them are found only in CB. Stems also without the auxiliary vowel are made from roots gam, jīv, bādh, vid.

1032. Inflection: Present-System. The desiderative stem is conjugated in the present-system with perfect regularity, like other *a*-stems, in both voices, in all the modes (including, in the older language, the subjunctive, and with participles and imperfect. It will be sufficient to give here the first persons only. We may take as active model  $\frac{1}{5}$ CH ipsa, 'seek to obtain', from  $\gamma$ ENU ap; as middle infine *titiksa*, 'endure', from  $\gamma$  ins tij, 'be sharp' (see below, 1040).

	1. Present Indicative.									
^{s.} ईप्सामि ¹ fpsāmi etc.	d. ईप्सावस् fpsāras etc.	^{p.} ईप्सामस् <i>fpsāmas</i> etc.	^{∎.} तितित्ते titikşe etc.	a. तितित्तावके titikşāvahe otc.	_{p.} तितित्तामरु <i>titikṣāmahe</i> etc.					
2. Present Subjunctive.										
ईप्सानि <i>ipsāni</i> etc.	ईप्साव <i>fpsāva</i> etc.	ईप्साम <i>fpsāma</i> etc.	तितित्तै <i>titiks्āi</i> etc.	নিনিনাবক্ট titikṣāvakāi etc.	तितित्तामर्दे titikşāmahāi evc.					
3. Present Optative.										
s ईप्सेयम् fpseyam etc.	ईप्मेत्र ipseva etc.	ईप्मेम fpscma etc.	तितित्तेय titikşeya ^{etc.}	तितित्तेविह titikserahi etc.	तितित्तेमकि titiksemahi otc.					

4. Present Imperative. तितित्तस्व तितित्तेयाम र्डेप्सत तितित्तधम insata títiksasva títiksethām titiksadhvam ipsatam etc. etc. atc. etc. etc. etc. 5. Present Participle. उप्सत्त ipsant (f. उप्सत्ती ipsanti) तितित्तमाण titiksamāņa. 6. Imperfect. म्रतितित्ते শ্বনিনিরাবরি শ্বনিনিরাদরি र्ण्साव रुप्तम DCHIH *átitiks*āmahi āipsam āinsāva ลี่เจรลิฑล átitikse átitiksāvahi

There are almost no irregularities of inflection to be reported from the older language. No 1st pl. in masi, or 2d pl. in thana or tana, or impv. in  $t\bar{a}t$ , is met with. The quotable subjunctive forms are those in  $s\bar{a}ni$ ,  $s\bar{a}t$  and sat,  $s\bar{a}n$ , and santa.

etc.

etc.

etc.

etc.

But the fem. pple sistesati (instead of sistesanti) occurs once or twice in the older texts.

1033. Desiderative forms outside the present-system are extremely rare in the oldest language. The RV. has only perfect forms from a stem minikş — thus, minikşáthus, minikşátus, minikşús; minikşe, minikşire — along with the present forms minikşati, minikşa etc., minikşant (pple): they show that minikş or mikş has taken on the character of an independent root. In AV. are found two aorist forms, *īrtsīs* and acikitsīs, and a participle or two from mīmānsa (see below, 1037, 1039) — all of them from stems which have lost their distinct desiderative meaning, and come to bear an independent value. The forms noted from the other earlier texts will be given in full below.

In the later language, the complete system of verbal forms is allowed to be made in the desiderative conjugation, the desiderative stem, less its final vowel, being treated as a root. Thus:

1034. Perfect. The desiderative perfect is the periphrastic (1070 ff.).

Thus,  $ips\bar{a}m$  cakāra etc.; titikšām cakre etc. Such forms are made in ÇB. from  $\gamma\gamma$  kram, dhūrv, bādh, ruh.

Apparent perfect forms of the ordinary kind made from *mimiks* in BV. have been noticed in the preceding paragraph. And AB. (viii. 21) has once *didāsitha*, 'thou hast desired to give'.

1035. Aorist. The aorist is of the is-form (5): thus, ऐप्मियम् āipsisam, म्रोतितित्तिषि átitiksisi.

etc.

etc.

The AV. has acikiters, and irters (augmentless, with má prohibitive: 579). TB. has äipert; and CB. äirtert, ácikirers and ajighäners, and amimänsisthäs.

A precative is also allowed — thus, *īpsyāsam*, titiksisīya, but it probably never occurs.

1086. Futures. The futures are made with the auxiliary vowel इ i: thus, ईप्सिप्यामि ipsisyami and ईप्सितास्मि ipsitasmi; तितित्तिष्ठे titikşişyé and तितित्तिताके titikşitahe.

The CB. has titiksisyate and didrksitiras.

1037. Verbal Nouns and Adjectives. These too are made with the auxiliary vowel  $\xi$  *i*, in all cases where that vowel is ever taken.

In the older language have been noted: participle in ta,  $m\bar{m}\bar{m}\bar{n}sit\bar{a}$ (AV., GB.), jijyūșita (AB.), cucrũșită and dhikșită (ÇB.); — gerundive in tavya, līpsitavya (AB.), didhyūsitavyà (ÇB.); — gerund in tvū, mīmānsitvā (K.).

1038. A desiderative adjective in u — for example, dipsú, bibhatsú, sişūsú — is of frequent occurrence, and has the meaning and construction of a present participle. An abstract noun in  $\bar{u}$  — for example, jigīsú — is also a usual appendage to the desiderative conjugation. Adjectives in enva (having a gerundive character: 966 b) are occasionally met with from the earliest time: thus, didrįkįcinja (RV.), cucrūsinja (TS.), ninīsenja (PB.); also, with irregular reduplication (apparently) paprįsįcinja (RV.). RV. has also didhisiáyya (966 c).

1039. Derivative or Tertiary Conjugations. A passive is allowed to be made, by adding the passive-sign  $\overline{u}$  yá to the desiderative root (or stem without final a): thus,  $\overline{\overline{zc+un}}$   $\overline{i}psyáte$ , 'it is desired to be obtained'; — and a causative by adding in like manner the causative-sign  $\overline{zu}$  áya (1041): thus,  $\overline{\overline{zc+un}}$   $\overline{i}psáyami$ , 'I cause to desire obtainment'.

The only trace of such formations noticed in the older language is the participle  $m\bar{n}m\bar{a}n\dot{s}y\dot{a}m\bar{a}na$  (apparently to be read instead of  $m\bar{n}m\bar{a}n\dot{s}\dot{a}m\bar{a}na$ , AV. ix. 6.24).

For the desiderative conjugation formed on causative stems, which is found as early as the Brāhmanas, see below, 1052b.

1040. Some stems which are desiderative in form have lost the peculiarity of desiderative meaning, and assumed the value of independent roots: examples are *cikits*, 'cure', *jugups*, 'despise', *titiks*, 'endure',  $b\bar{b}hats$ , 'abhor',  $m\bar{m}a\bar{n}s$ , 'ponder'. Doubtless 1042]

some of the apparent roots in the language with sibilant final are akin with the desideratives in origin.

#### IV. Causative.

1041. In the later language is allowed to be made from every root a complete causative conjugation. The basis of this is a causative stem, formed by appending the causativesign  $\overline{au}$  *áya* to the, usually strengthened, root.

But by no means all conjugation-stems formed by the sign  $\pi u$  *áya* are of causative value; and the grammarians regard them as a conjugation-class, the tenth or *cur*-class, according to which roots may be inflected as according to the other classes, and either alone or along with others.

In RV., the proportion without causative value is fully one third. The formation is a more obviously denominative one than any of the other conjugation-classes, an intermediate between them and the proper denominatives. A causative meaning has established itself in connection with the formation, and become predominant, though not exclusive. A number of roots of late appearance and probably derivative character are included in the class, and some palpable denominatives, which lack only the usual denominative accent (below, 1055).

The causative formation is of much more frequent use, and more decidedly expanded into a full conjugation, than either the intensive or the desiderative. It is made from more than two hundred and fifty roots in the early language (in RV., from about one hundred and fifty); but in the oldest, its forms outside the present-system are (apart from the attached reduplicated aorist: 1048) exceedingly few.

1042. The treatment of the root before the causativesign 되고 aya is as follows:

a. Medial or initial *i*, *u*, *r*, *l* have the *guma*-strengthening (if capable of it): thus, *vedaya* from  $\sqrt{vid}$ , *codaya* from  $\sqrt{cud}$ , *tarpaya* from  $\sqrt{trp}$ ; and *kalpaya* from  $\sqrt{klp}$  (only example).

But a few roots lack the strengthening: these are, in the older language, cit (citaya and cetaya), vip (vipaya and vepaya), is, il and il, ris (risaya and resaya), tuj, tur, dyut (dyutaya and dyotaya), mrd, sprh; and grabh makes in RV. grbhaya. Dus and guh lengthen the vowel instead. Mrj sometimes has vrddhi, as in other forms: thus, mārjaya (beside marjaya).

b. A final vowel has the *crddhi*-strengthening : thus, *cyāvaya*, *bhāvaya*, *dhāraya*, *sāraya*.

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But no root in *i* or  $\bar{i}$  has vyddhi in the older language (unless  $p\bar{a}yaya$  [d, below] comes from  $p\bar{i}$  rather than  $p\bar{a}$ ) — as, indeed, regular causatives from such roots are hardly quotable: only RV. has ksayaya from  $\gamma/ksi$  'dwell'; for a few alternatively permitted forms, see below, **e**.

A few roots have (generally in the older language only) a form also with guna-strengthening: thus, dru, yu 'ward off', cru,  $p\bar{u}$ , jr 'decay', dr 'burst', sr,  $h\bar{r}$ ;  $v\bar{r}$  'choose' makes varaya later (it is not found in  $\nabla$ . or Br.).

c. A medial or initial *a* in a light syllable is sometimes lengthened, and sometimes remains unchanged: thus, *bhājaya*, *svāpaya*, *ādaya*; *janaya*, *çrathaya*, *anaya*.

The roots in the older language which keep their short a are an, jan, pan, svan, dhan, ran. stan, dhvan, gam (gāmaya once in RV.), tam, dam, nam, prath, crath, cnath, vyath, svad, nad, das, dhvas, mah, nabh, tvar, svar. Some have both forms: namely, pat, chad, mad, ram, cam; raj has rajaya (AV., once) and rañjaya. The roots which lengthen the vowel are decidedly the more numerous. If a nasal is taken in any of the strong forms of a root, it usually appears in the causative stem: thus, randhaya. lambhaya, rambhaya, skandaya.

**d.** Most roots in final  $\bar{a}$ , and the root r, add p before the conjugation-sign: thus,  $d\bar{a}paya$ ,  $dh\bar{a}paya$ ,  $sth\bar{a}paya$ ; arpaya.

Such stems are made in the older language from the roots khyā, glā, ghrā, jñā, dā 'give', drā 'run', dhā 'put' and dhā 'suck', mā 'measure', mlā, vā 'blow', and vā 'tire', sthā, snā, hā 'remove' and hā 'leave'. From jñā and snā are found in AV. and later the shortened forms jñapaya and snapaya, and from  $cr\bar{a}$  only crapaya (not in RV.). Also glā forms in the later language glapaya.

Stems from  $\bar{a}$ -roots showing no p are, earlier,  $p\bar{a}yaya$  from  $\sqrt{p}\bar{a}$  'drink' (or  $p\bar{i}$ ),  $py\bar{a}yaya$  from  $\sqrt{py}\bar{a}$  or  $py\bar{a}y$ ;  $s\bar{a}yaya$  from  $\sqrt{s}\bar{a}$  (or si); also, later,  $c\bar{a}yaya$  from  $\sqrt{c}\bar{a}$ ,  $hv\bar{a}yaya$  from  $\sqrt{hv\bar{a}}$ ; — and further, from roots  $ch\bar{a}$ ,  $r\bar{a}$  'weave', and  $vy\bar{a}$ , according to the grammarians.

e. The same p is taken also by a few i and  $\bar{i}$ -roots, with various accompanying irregularities: thus, ksepaya from  $\gamma ksi$  'dwell' (RV., beside ksayaya);  $ks\bar{a}paya$  (AV.) and ksapaya and ksayaya from  $\gamma ksi$  'destroy':  $j\bar{a}paya$  (VS. and later) from  $\gamma ji$ ;  $l\bar{a}paya$  (TB. and later) from  $\gamma l\bar{i}$ ;  $\sigma dhy\bar{u}$ -paya from  $adhi + \gamma i$ ;  $sm\bar{a}paya$  (beside  $sm\bar{u}yaya$ , which does not occur; from  $\gamma smi$ ; hrepaya from  $\gamma hr\bar{i}$ ; — and, according to the grammarians. repaya from  $\gamma r\bar{i}$ , vlepaya from  $\gamma vl\bar{i}$ ,  $kr\bar{a}paya$  (beside  $c\bar{u}yaya$ ) from  $\gamma si$  bhar and  $\gamma bhar$  and  $\gamma bhar$  and  $\gamma kn\bar{u}$  or  $kn\bar{u}y$  is said to form knopaya.

f. More anomalous cases, in which the so-called causative is palpably the denominative of a derived noun, are:  $p\bar{a}laya$  from  $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$  'protect'; prinaya from  $\sqrt{pr\bar{i}}$ ;  $l\bar{i}naya$  (according to grammarians) from  $\sqrt{l\bar{i}}$ ;  $dh\bar{u}naya$  (not causative in sense) from  $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$ ;  $bh\bar{i}saya$  from  $\sqrt{bh\bar{i}}$ ;  $gh\bar{a}taya$  from  $\sqrt{han}$ ;  $sph\bar{a}vaya$ (according to grammarians) from  $\sqrt{sph\bar{a}}$  or  $sph\bar{a}y$ . 1043. Inflection: Present-System. The causative stem is inflected in the present-system precisely like other stems in  $\Xi a$ : it will be sufficient to give here in general the first persons of the different formations, taking as model the stem  $\Box R \Xi dh \bar{a} r \dot{a} y a$ , from  $\sqrt{\Xi} dh r$ . Thus:

#### 1. Present Indicative.

active.				middle.		
	8.	d.	<b>p.</b>	8.	<b>d</b> .	р.
1	धारयामि	धार्यावस्	धारयामस्	धारये	धार्यावके	धारयामके
	dhāráyāmi	dhāráyāxas	dhāráyāmas	dhāráye	dhāráyāvahe	dhāráyāmahe
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

The 1st pll. act. in masi greatly outnumber (as 10 to 1) those in mas in both RV. and AV. No example occurs of 2d pl. act. in thana, nor of 3d sing. mid. in e for ate.

#### 2. Present Subjunctive.

For the subjunctive may be instanced all the forms noted as occurring in the older language:

- 1 dhāráyāņi dhāráyāva dhāráyāma dhāráyāi dhāráyāvahāi
- (dhāráyāsi dhāráyāthas dhāráyātha dhāráyāse {dhāráyādhve {dhāráyās} } {dhāráyāti dhāráyāti dh
- 3 {dhāráyāt dhāráyātas dhāráyān {dhāráyātā dhāráyātā

Only one dual mid. form in  $\bar{a}ite$  occurs:  $m\bar{a}day\bar{a}ite$  (RV.). The only RV. mid. form in  $\bar{a}i$ , except in 1st du., is  $m\bar{a}day\bar{a}dhv\bar{a}i$ . The primary endings in 2d and 3d sing. act. are more common than the secondary.

# 3. Present Optative.

1 धार्ययम् धार्येव धार्येम धार्येय धार्येवर्कि धार्यमकि dhāráyeyam dhāráyeva dhāráyema dhāráyeya dhāráyevahi dhāráyemahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. Optative forms are very rare in the oldest language (four in RV., two in AV.;; they become more common in the Brāhmaņas. AB. has once kāmayīta.

#### 4. Present Imperative.

धारयत धारयस्व धारयेषाम 2 धारय धारयतम् धारयधम् dhāráya dhāráyatam dhāráyata dhāráyawa dhāráyethām dhāráyadhvam etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. Imperative persons with the ending tat occur: dharayatat (AV.) is 2d sing.: gamayatāt and cyāvayatāt (K. etc.), and vārayatāt (TB.) are used as 2d pl.; vārayadhvāt (K. etc.) is 2d pl., and the only noted example (see above, 570.

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#### 5. Present Participle.

धारयस् dhardyant f. यसी -yanti धार्यमाप dhardyamana.

#### 6. Imperfect.

1 मधारयम् मधारयाव मधारयाम् मधारये मधारयावाँक् मधारयामकि

ádhārayam ádhārayāza ádhārayāma ádhāraye ádhārayāzahi ádhārayāmaki

etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. For a few forms in is and it which perhaps belong to the imperfect,

see below.

1044. As was above pointed out, the formations from the canastive stem in aya outside the present-system are in the oldest language very limited. In RV. are found two forms of the future in syāmi, and ten infinitives in dhyāi; also one or two derivative nouns in  $t_{\rm f}$  (bodhayit; codayitrī), five in isnu, seven in itnu, and a few in a (atipārayá, nidhārayá, vācamīnkhayá, viçvamejaya). In AV., also two s-future forms and four gerunds in  $tv\bar{a}$ ; and a few derivative noun-stems, from one of which is made a periphrastic perfect (gamayām cakāra). In the Brāhmaņas, verbal derivative forms become more numerous and various, as will be noted in detail below.

1045. Perfect. The accepted causative perfect is the periphrastic (1070), the derivative noun in  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ , in accusative form, to which the auxiliary is added, being formed from the causative stem: thus,

धार्यां चकार dhārayam cakāra धार्यां चक्रे dhārayam cakre.

Of this perfect no example occurs in RV. or SV. or VS., only one gamayán cakāra — in AV., and but two or three in all the various texts of the Black Yajur-Veda, and these not in the manira-parts of the text. They are also by no means frequent in the Brāhmanas, except in  $\zeta B$ . (where they abound: chiefly, perhaps, for the reason that this work uses in considerable part the perfect instead of imperfect as its narrative tense).

1046. A orist. The aorist of the causative conjugation is the reduplicated, which in general has nothing to do with the causative stem, but is made directly from the root.

It has been already fully described (above, 856 ff.).

Its association with the causative is doubtless founded on an original intensive character belonging to it as a reduplicated form, and is a matter of gradual growth: in the Veda it is made from a considerable number of roots (in RV., more than a third of its instances; in AV., about a fifth) which have no causative stem in *aya*.

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## CAUSATIVE.

The causative aorist of  $\sqrt{4}$  dhr, then, is as follows:

सदीधरम् सदीधराव सदीधराम सदीधरे सदीधरावकि सदीधरामकि adidharam adidharāva adidharāma adidhare adidharāvahi adidharāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

1047. In a few cases, where the root has assumed a peculiar form before the causative sign — as by the addition of a por s (above, 1042 d ff.) — the reduplicated aorist is made from this form instead of from the simple root: thus, *atisthipam* from *sthāp* (stem *sthāpaya*) for  $\sqrt{sthā}$ . Aorist-forms of this character from quasi-roots in  $\bar{a}p$  are made from *sthāp*,  $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}p$ ,  $h\bar{a}p$ ,  $j\bar{a}p$ , and *grap* (above, 861); the only other example from the older language is  $b\bar{b}h\bar{s}as$  etc. from  $bh\bar{s}\bar{s}$  for  $\sqrt{bh\bar{s}}$ .

1048. A small number of Vedic forms having is and it after y of the causal stem are apparently sporadic attempts at making an is-aorist: thus, vyathayis (AV.), dhvanayit (RV.; TS. has instead the anomalous dhvanayit), and  $\bar{a}ilay\bar{a}t$  (AV.). The two former are augmentless forms, used with  $m\bar{a}$  prohibitive (compare the denom.  $\bar{u}nay\bar{a}y\bar{s}$ , RV., also with  $m\dot{a}$ ).

1049. A precative is of course allowed by the grammarians to be made for the causative conjugation: in the middle, from the causative stem with the auxiliary  $z_i$  substituted for its final  $z_i$  in the active, from the form of the root as strengthened in the causative stem, but without the causative sign: thus,

धायासम् dhāryāsam etc. धार्गियधीय dhārayişiya etc. This formation is doubtless to be regarded as purely fictitious.

1050. Futures. Both futures, with the conditional, are made from the causative stem, with the auxiliary  $\xi i$ , which takes the place of its final  $\Xi a$ . Thus:

## S-Future.

धारायव्यामि dhārayisyāmi etc. धारायव्य dhārayisyé etc.

# Conditional.

मधारायज्यम् adhārayisyam etc. मधारायज्य adhārayisye etc.

#### Periphrastic Future.

धारायतास्मि dhārayitāsmi etc. धारायताक dhārayitāhe etc.

The s-future participles are made regularly: thus, dhārayisyánt (fem. -yánti or -yati), dhārayisyámāņa.

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It has been mentioned above that RV. and AV. contain only two examples each of the s-future, and none of the periphrastic. The former begin to appear in the Brähmanas more numerously, but still sparingly, with participles, and conditional (only adkārayisyat, ÇB.); of the latter, ÇB. affords two examples (pārayitāsmi and janayitāsi).

1051. Verbal Nouns and Adjectives. These are in part formed from the causative stem in the same manner as the futures; in part — namely, the passive participle in  $\overrightarrow{n}$  ta and the gerundive and gerund in  $\overrightarrow{u}$  ya (and the rootinfinitive) — from the causatively strengthened root-form. The auxiliary  $\overrightarrow{s}$  *i* is taken in every formation which ever admits that vowel.

Thus, of formations permitted in the later language (but the examples taken from the earlier):

participle in ta: īritá, vāsitá, crāvitá;

gerundive in tavya : tarpayitavyà, kalpayitavya, gamayitavya, bhakşayitavya ;

gerundive in ya : sthāpya, yājya;

infinitive in tum: jósayitum, dhárayitum, janayitum, pārayitum; gerund in tvā: kalpayitvá, sādayitvá, -arpayitvá (AV.: see 990), -rocayitvá (TA.), çrapayitvā (AB.);

gerund in ya: -ghārya, -pādya, -vāsya, -sādya, -sthāpya; gerund in am: -sthāpam (CB.).

Further, of formations found only in the older language:

root-infinitive, accusative: -sthapam (PB.);

infinitive in tavāi: jánayitavāf, tárpayitavāf, páyayitavāf, -kalpayitavāf, -cootayitavāf (all GB.);

infinitive in dhyāi: isayádhyāi, irayádhyāi, tansayádhyāi, nāçayádhyāi, mandayádhyāi, mādayádhyāi, risayádhyāi, vartayádhyāi, vājayádhyāi, syandayádhyāi (sll RV.);

gerundive in āyya: panayāyya, spīhayāyya, trayayāyya (Virā:?).

All these, it will be noticed, follow the same rule as to accent with the similar formations from the simple root, showing no trace of the special accent of the causative stem.

1052. Derivative or Tertiary Conjugations. From the causative stem may be made a passive and a desiderative conjugation. Thus:

a. The passive-stem is formed by adding the usual passive-sign  $\overline{u}$  yá to the causatively strengthened root, the causative-sign being dropped: thus,  $\overline{uun}$  dhāryáte. Such passives are not found in the Veda, but they are met with here and there throughout the Brähmana language: examples are  $j\bar{n}apy\dot{a}$ - (TS.),  $s\bar{a}dya$ - (K.),  $p\bar{a}dya$ - (AB.),  $v\bar{a}dya$ - (TB.),  $sth\bar{a}pya$ - (GB.), and so on.

b. The desiderative stem is made by reduplication and addition of the sign रूप *işa*, of which the initial vowel replaces the final of the causative stem : thus, दिधारियपति didhārayişati.

These, too, are found here and there in the Brāhmaņas and later: examples are pipāyayisa (K.), bibhāvayisa and cikalpayisa and lulobhayisa (AB.), didrāpayisa and rirādhayisa and āpipayisa (ÇB.), and so on.

As to causatives made from the desiderative stem, see above, 1039.

## V. Denominative.

1053. A denominative conjugation is one that has for its basis a noun-stem.

It is a view now prevailingly held that most of the presentsystems of the Sanskrit verb, along with other formations analogous with a present-system, are in their ultimate origin denominative; and that many apparent roots are of the same character. The denominatives which are so called differ from these only in that their origin is recent and undisguised.

1054. The grammarians teach that any noun-stem in the language may be converted, without other addition than that of an  $\Xi a$  (as union-vowel enabling it to be inflected according to the second general conjugation) into a present-stem, and conjugated as such.

As examples of what is allowed in this way, are given krsnati, 'acts like Krishna';  $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}ti$ , 'is like a garland  $(m\bar{a}l\bar{a})'$ ; kavayati, 'plays the poet (kavi)'; bhavati, 'is like the earth  $(bh\bar{u})'$ ; crayati, 'resembles Çri (goddess)'; *pitarati*, 'acts the father';  $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}nati$ , 'is kingly'. But such formations are at the best of extreme rarity in actual use. The RV. has a few isolated and doubtful examples, the clearest of which is *bhisdkti*, 'he heals', from *bhisdj*, 'physician'; it is made like a form of the root-class; *abhisnak* seems to be its imperfect according to the nasal class. And *pátyate*, 'he rules', appears to be a denominative of *páti*, 'master'. Other possible cases are (Delbrück) *isanas* etc., *krpónanta*, *tarusema* etc., *vanusanta*, *bhurajanta*, *vánanvati*. None of the other Veda or Brāhmana texts has anything additional of the same character.

1055. In general, the base of denominative conjugation

is made from the noun-stem by means of the conjugationsign  $\overline{\mathbf{u}} y \dot{a}$ , which has the accent.

The identity of this ya with the ya of the so-called causative conjugation, as making with the final a of the noun-stem the causative-sign aya, is altogether probable. What relation it sustains to the ya of the ya-class (VIII.), of the passive, and of the derivative intensive stem, is more open to question.

1056. Intermediate between the denominative and causative conjugations stands a class of verbs, plainly denominative in origin, but having the causative accent. Examples, beginning to appear at the earliest period of the language, are mantráyate (from mantra,  $\gamma$  man + tra) and kīrtáyati (from kīrti,  $\gamma$  kr 'praise'). These, along with like forms from roots which have no other present-system (though they may make scattering forms outside that system from the root directly), or which have this beside other present-systems without causative meaning, are reckoned by the grammarians as a separate conjugation-class (above, 607).

1057. Denominatives are formed at every period in the history of the language, from the earliest down.

They are most frequent in RV., which contains over a hundred, of all varieties; AV. has only half as many (and personal forms from hardly a third as many: from the rest, present participles, or derivative nouns); AB., less than twenty; CB., hardly more than a dozen; and so on. In the later language in general, they are far from numerous; and most of those which occur are "cur-class" verbs.

1058. The denominative meaning is, as in other languages, of the greatest variety; some of the most frequent forms of it are: 'be like, act as, play the part of', 'regard or treat as', 'cause to be, make into', 'use, make application of', 'desire, wish for, crave' — that which is signified by the noun-stem.

The modes of treatment of the stem-final are also various; and the grammarians make a certain more or less definite assignment of the varieties of meaning to the varieties of form: but this allotment finds only a dubious support in the usages of the words as met with even in the later language, and still less in the earlier. Hence the formal classification, according to the final of the noun-stem, and the way in which this is treated before the denominative sign  $y\dot{a}$ , will be the best one to follow. 1059. From stems in a. s. The final a of a nounstem oftenest remains unchanged: thus, *amitrayáti*, 'plays the enemy, is hostile'; *devayáti*, 'cultivates the gods, is pious'.

b. Final a is lengthened: thus, aghāyáti, 'plans mischief'; priyāyáte, 'holds dear'; açvāyáti, 'seeks for horses'; açanāyáti, 'desires food'.

In the Veda, forms of the same verb with short and long  $\bar{u}$  before ya sometimes exchange with one another.

c. It is changed to  $\bar{\imath}$ , or rarely *i*; thus, *adhvarīyáti*, 'performs the sacrifice'; *tavisīyáti*, 'is mighty'; *putrīyáti* or *putriyáti*, 'desires a son'; *mānsīyáti*, 'craves flesh'.

Denominatives of this form show a special proclivity toward the meaning 'desire'.

**d.** It is dropped (after *n* or *r*): thus, *turanyáti*, 'is rapid'; *adhvaryáti*, 'performs the sacrifice'.

e. Other modes of treatment are sporadic: thus, the addition of s, as in stanasysti, 'seeks the breast'; the change of a to e, as in vareyáti, 'plays the wooer'.

1060. From stems in  $\bar{a}$ . Final  $\bar{a}$  usually remains, as in *gopāyáti*, 'plays the herdsman, protects'; *prtanāyati*, 'fights'; but it is sometimes treated in the other methods of an *a*-stem: thus, *prtanyati*, 'fights'.

1061. From stems in *i*, *i*, and *u*,  $\bar{u}$ . Such stems are (especially those in *u*,  $\bar{u}$ ) much less common. They show regularly *i* and  $\bar{u}$  before *ya*: thus,  $ar\bar{a}tiydti$  (also -tiy-), 'plots injury'; *janiyáti* (also -niy-), 'seeks a wife'; *sakhīyáti*, 'desires friendship'; — *çatrūyáti*, 'acts the foe';  $ty\bar{u}ydti$ , 'is straight'; *vasūyáti*, 'desires wealth': *asūyáti*, 'grumbles, is discontent': with short *u*,  $g\bar{a}tuydti$ , 'sets in motion'.

More rarely, *i* is treated as *a* (or else is gunated, with loss of a *y*): thus, *dhunayáti*, 'comes snorting'. Sometimes, as to *a* (above, e), a sibilant is added: thus, *avişyáti*, 'is vehement'; *uruşyáti*, 'saves'. From *dhī*, RV. makes *dhiyāyáte*.

1062. From other vowel-stems. **a.** Final r is said to be changed to  $r\bar{i}$ : thus, *pitriyáti*, 'is fatherly': no example in use has been noted.

b. The diphthongs, in the few cases that occur, have their final element changed to a semivowel: thus, gavyát, 'seeks cattle, goes a-raiding'.

1063. From consonant-stems. A final consonant usually remains before ya: thus, bhisajyáti, 'plays the physician, cures'; ukşanyáti, 'acts like a bull'; apasyáti, 'is active'; namasyáti, 'pays reverence'; sumanasyáte, 'is favorably disposed'; tarusyáti, 'fights'. But a final n is said to be sometimes dropped, and the preceding vowel treated as a final: thus,  $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}y\dot{a}te$  or  $r\bar{a}j\bar{i}y\dot{a}ti$ , 'is kingly', from  $r\bar{a}jan$ :  $vry\bar{a}y\dot{a}te$  from vryan is the only example quotable from the older language. Sporadic cases occur of other final consonants similarly treated: thus,  $oj\bar{a}y\dot{a}te$  from ojas; — while, on the other hand, an *a*-vowel is occasionally added to such a consonant before ya: thus,  $isay\dot{a}ti$  from is,  $satvan\bar{a}yati$  from satvan.

1064. By far the largest class of consonantal stems are those showing a s before the ya; and, as has been seen above, a sibilant is sometimes, by analogy, added to a final vowel, making the denominative-sign virtually sya — or even, with a also added after an *i* or *u*-vowel, *asya*; and this comes to be recognised in the later language as an independent sign, forming denominatives that express desire: thus, *madhusyati* or *madhvasyati*, 'longs for honey'; *ksīrasyati*, 'craves milk'.

1065. The grammarians reckon as a special class of denominatives in  $k\bar{u}mya$  what are really only ordinary ones made from a compound noun-stem having  $k\bar{u}ma$  as its final member: thus, *rathak\bar{u}myati*, 'longs for the chariot' (K.: only example noted from the older language); *putrak\bar{u}myati*, 'desires a son' — coming from the possessive compounds *rathakūma*, *putrakāma*. And *satyāpayati*, 'declares true' (from *satya*), is an example of yet another formation declared to occur.

1066. a. A number of denominative stems occur in the Veda for which no corresponding noun-stems are found, although for all or nearly all of them related words appear: thus, aākūya, stabhūya, isudkya; dhisanya, risanya, ruvanya, huvanya, isanya; ratharya, cratharya, saparya; irasya, daçasya, makhasya, panasya, sacasya. Those in anya, especially, look like the beginnings of a new conjugation-class.

b. Having still more that aspect, however, are a Vedic group of stems in  $\bar{a}ya$ , which in general have allied themselves to present-systems of the  $n\bar{a}$ -class (V.), and are found alongside the forms of that class: thus,  $grbh\bar{a}yáti$ beside grbhnati. Of such, RV. has grbhaya, mathaya, pruyaya, muyaya, crathaya, skabhaya, stabhaya. A few others have no  $n\bar{a}$ -class companions: thus, damaya, camaya, tudaya (AV.); and panaya, nacaya, vryaya ( $\gamma vry$ 'rain'), vasaya ( $\gamma vas$  'clothe'), and perhaps acaya ( $\gamma ac$  'attain').

1067. The denominative stems in RV. and AV. with causative accentuation are: RV. aākháya, artháya, ieáya (also ieayd), ūrjáya, rtáya, krpáya, mantráya, mrgáya, vavráya, vūjáya (also vūjayá), vīláya, susváya (also susvayá); AV. adds kīrtáya, dhūpáya, pūláya, vīráya, sabhūgáya.

The accent of *anniya* and *hastaya* (RV.) is wholly anomalous.

1068. Inflection. The denominative stems are inflected with regularity like the other stems ending in  $\Xi a$ throughout the present-system. Forms outside of that system — except from the stems which are reckoned to the causative or *cur*-class, and which follow in all respects the rules for that class — are of the utmost rarity.

In RV. occurs no form not belonging to the present-system, unless (as seems most likely)  $\bar{u}nay\bar{i}s$  (with  $m\dot{a}$  prohibitive) is to be regarded as 2d sing. of the *is*-aorist. Unquestionable examples of this aorist are  $\bar{u}s\bar{u}yi\bar{i}t$  (QB.),  $p\bar{u}payisia$  (TS. iii. 2.8³: pl., with  $m\dot{a}$  prohibitive) and  $avrs\bar{u}yisata$  (VS.). The form  $\dot{a}sapary\bar{a}it$  (AV. xiv. 2.20), with  $\bar{u}i$  for  $\bar{i}$  (555 b), might be aorist; but, as the metre shows, is probably a corrupt reading;  $amanasy\bar{a}it$ , certainly imperfect, appears to occur in TB. (ii. 3.8³). QB. has the future gop $\bar{u}yisyati$ , and TS. the participles kand $\bar{u}yisyant$  and kand $\bar{u}yit$ . From roots assimilated to the causatives occur in the older language mantrayām  $\bar{a}sa$  (AB., GB.), mantrayām  $\bar{a}$  cakratus and cakre (QB.), mantritá (QB., TA.), -mantrya (TB.), and one or two other like forms. The gerundival adjectives saparyénya and atasāyya also are met with.

# CHAPTER XV.

# PERIPHRASTIC AND COMPOUND CONJUGATION.

1069. ONE periphrastic formation, the periphrastic future, has been already described (942 ff.), since it has become in the later language a necessary part of every verbal conjugation, and since, though still remaining essentially periphrastic, it has been so fused in its parts and altered in construction as to assume in considerable measure the semblance of an integral tense-formation.

By far the most important other formation of the class is

# The Periphrastic Perfect.

1070. This (though almost unknown in the Veda, and coming only gradually into use in the Brāhmalas) is a tense widely made and frequently used in the classical Sanskrit.

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It is made by prefixing the accusative of a derivative noun-stem in  $\exists i a$  (accented) to the perfect tense of an auxiliary verb: namely, of  $\sqrt{a_i} k_r$  'make', more often of  $\sqrt{a_i} a_s$  'be', and very rarely of  $\sqrt{a_i} bh\bar{u}$ , 'be'.

In the older language, as is pointed out below,  $k_T$  is used as auxiliary almost alone, and  $bh\bar{u}$  not at all. Even in MBh.,  $bh\bar{u}$  hardly ever occurs (Holtzmann).

1071. The periphrastic perfect occurs as follows:

a. It is the perfect of the derivative conjugations: intensive, desiderative, causative, and denominative; the noun in द्या å being made from the present-stem which is the general basis of each conjugation: thus, from  $\sqrt{agu}$  budh, intensive बोब्धाम् bobudhåm, desiderative बुभुत्साम् bubhutsåm, causative बोधयाम् bodhayåm; denominative मन्त्रयाम् mantrayåm.

The formation from causative stems, and from those denominatives which are assimilated to causatives, is by far the most frequent.

b. Most roots beginning with a vowel in a heavy syllable (long by nature or long by position) make this perfect only, and not the simple one: thus,  $\overline{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{r}$  from  $\sqrt{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{r}$  and  $\overline{r}$  from  $\sqrt{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{r}$  from  $\sqrt{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{r}$  from  $\sqrt{\overline{u}}$  and  $\overline{r}$  
Excepted are the roots  $\overline{ap}$  and  $\overline{anch}$ , and those beginning with *a* before two consonants (and taking  $\overline{an}$  as reduplication: **788**).

c. The roots (that is, stems reckoned by the grammarians as roots) of more than one syllable have their perfect of this formation: thus, चनामान् cakāsām.

But  $\bar{u}rpu$  (712) is said to form  $\bar{u}rpon\bar{a}va$  only, and  $j\bar{u}gr$  and  $daridr\bar{a}$  (1020, 1024) to have a perfect of either formation.

d. A few other scattering roots: namely, ay, day, and kās. and optionally vid and uş, and a few roots of the reduplicating class,  $bh\bar{i}$ , bhr, hu, and  $hr\bar{i}$ . All these make the derivative noun from their present-stem: thus, dayām, vidām, osām, bibhayām. juhavām, bibharām, jihrayām (these with guņa of the final vowel before the  $\bar{a}$ ).

An occasional example is met with from other roots: thus, maydm from **sī** (pres.-stem naya); hvay $\bar{u}m$  from  $\gamma$  hv $\bar{u}$  (pres.-stem hvaya).

1072. The periphrastic perfect of the middle voice is

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made only with the middle inflection of  $\gamma = kr$ ; that of the active, with any one of the three auxiliaries. For passive use, the auxiliaries झस् as and  $\frac{1}{2} bh\bar{u}$  are also allowed to take a middle inflection.

It is unnecessary to give a paradigm of this formation, as the inflection of the auxiliaries is the same as in their independent use (for that of  $\gamma kr$ , see 800 f); of  $\gamma bh\bar{u}$ , see 800 b; of  $\gamma as$ , see 636).

The connection of the noun and auxiliary is not so close that other words are not sometimes allowed to come between them: thus, tâm pūtayām prathamam ūsa, 'him he first made to fall'; prabhrançayām yo naghuşam cukāra, 'who made Naghusha fall headlong' (both Raghuvança).

1073. The above is an account of the periphrastic formation with a derivative noun in  $\bar{a}m$  as it appears in the later language; earlier, its aspect is quite different: namely, as that of a more general, but quite infrequent, combination of such a noun with various forms of the root  $k_r$ . Thus:

a. Of forms with the perfect of the auxiliary occurs only a single example in the whole body of Vedic texts (metrical): namely, gamayám cakāra (AV. xviii.). In the brāhmaņa parts of the Black Yajus texts are found vidám cakāra (TS., K., MS.) and vidám cakīma (K.), and yājayám cakāra (K.). In the Brāhmaņas, examples from causative etc. stems in aya begin to prevail over others, and in ÇB. they are rather frequent. Examples from desiderative stems have been noted only from ÇB.: they are cikramisám, ruruksám, dudhūrsám, bībhatsám. From simple roots having the same formation in the later language, occur vidám (TB., ÇB., GB.), āsám (ÇB., GB.), iksám (ÇB., GB.), edhám (ÇB.), juhavám (AB., TB., ÇB.), bibhayám (ÇB.); and also layám (nilayám) from  $\gamma$ lī (ÇB.).

b. Forms with the aorist of the auxiliary are in the oldest Brāhmanas as numerous as those with the perfect. Thus, with akar occur ramayám (K.), janayām and sūdayām and svadayām and sthāpayām (MS.); and with akran, vidām (TS., MS., TB.). With the aorist optative or precetive has been noted only pūvayām kriyāt (MS.).

c. Like combinations with other tenses are excessively rare, but not entirely unknown: so, juhavām karoti (Çānkh. Çr. Sū.).

d. With any other auxiliary than  $\sqrt{kr}$  appears only mantrayām āsa (AB., GB.; in ÇB. the same nonn is combined with  $\sqrt{kr}$  in mantrayām cukratus and mantrayām cakre).

As the examples show, the noun (as in the case of the periphrastic future: 945) has its independent accent.

# Participial Periphrastic Phrases.

1074. Combinations of participles with auxiliary verbs, of condition or motion, forming phrases which have an office

analogous with that of verb-tenses, are not unknown in any period of the language.

They occur even in the Veda, but are far more common and conspicuous in the Brāhmaņas, and become again of little account in the later language.

1075. Examples of the various formations are as follows.

a. A (usually present) participle with the tenses of the verb *i*, 'go'. This is the combination, on the whole, of widest and most frequent occurrence. Thus: yathā sūcyā vāsah samdadhad iyād evam evāi 'tābhir yajňasya chidram samdadhad eti (AB.), 'just as one would mend [habitually] a garment with a needle, so with these one mends any defect of the sacrifice'; agnir vā idam vāiçvānaro dahann āit (PB.), 'Agni Vaiçvanara kept burning this creation'; té 'surāh párājitā yánio dyávāpṛthivī úpāçrayan (TB.), 'those Asuras, getting beaten, took refuge with heaven and earth'; tè 'sya gṛhấh paçáva upamūryámāņā īyuh (ÇB.), 'the animals, his family, would be continually destroyed'.

b. The same with the verb car, 'go (continually or habitually)', signifying still more distinctly than the preceding a continued or habitual action. Thus: agnão agníc carati právistah (AV.), 'Agni is constantly present in the fire'; adandyam dandena ghnantac caranti (PB.), 'they make a practice of beating with a rod what is undeserving of punishment'.

c. The same with the verbs  $\bar{a}s$ , 'sit', and sth $\bar{a}$ , 'stand', with a like meaning. Thus, juhvata  $\bar{a}sate$  (K.), 'they continue sacrificing'; te 'pakramya prativ $\bar{a}vadato$  'tistham (AB.), 'they, having gone off, kept vehemently refusing.

In the later language,  $sth\bar{a}$  is the verb oftenest used, with predicates of various kind, to make a verbal phrase of continuance.

d. A participle with as and  $bh\bar{u}$ , 'be'. The participle is oftenest a future one; as only is used in the optative,  $bh\bar{u}$  usually in other forms. Thus: yah pūrvam anījānah syūt (AB.), 'whoever may not have made sacrifice before'; samāvad eva yajñe kurvāņā āsan (GB.), 'they did the same thing at the sacrifice'; parikrīdanta āsan (MS.), 'they were playing about'; itarā me kena devatā upāptā bhavisyanti (AB.), 'wherewith shall the other deities be won by me?' yátra suptvá púnar nà 'vadrāsyán bhávati (CB.), 'when, after sleeping, he is not going to fall asleep again'; havyam hi vakṣyan bhavati (AB.), 'for he is intending to carry the sacrifice'; dāsyant syāt (K.), 'may be going to give'; yéna váhanena syantsyánt syát (CB.), 'with what vehicle he may be about to drive'.

# **Composition with Prepositional Prefixes.**

1076. All the forms, personal and other, of verbal conjugation — of both primary and secondary conjugation, and even to some extent of denominative (so far as the denominative stems have become assimilated in value to simple roots) — occur very frequently in combination with certain words of direction, elements of an adverbial character (see the next chapter), the so-called prepositions, according to the original use of that term, or the verbal prefixes.

Practically, in the later language, it is as if a compounded root were formed, out of root and prefix, from which then the whole conjugation (with many derivatives: below, chap. XVII.) is made, just as from the simple root. Yet, even there (and still more in the older language: 1081), the combination is so loose, and the members retain so much of their independent value, that in most dictionaries (that of Monier Williams is an exception) the conjugation of each root with prefixes is treated under the simple root, and not in the alphabetic order of the prefix. Derivative words, however, are by universal agreement given in their independent alphabetic place, like simple words.

1077. Those verbal prefixes which have value as such throughout the whole history of the language are given below, in alphabetic order, with their fundamental meanings:

म्रति *áti*, 'across, beyond, past, over, to excess'; म्रधि *ádhi*, 'above, over, on, on to': म्रन् *ánu*, 'after, along, toward'; म्रत*् antár*, 'between, among, within'; म्रप *àpa*, 'away, forth, off'; म्रपि *àpi*, 'unto, close upon or on'; म्रभि *abhi*, 'to, unto, against' (often with implied vio-

lence);

म्रव *áva*, 'down, off'; म्रा *å*, 'to, unto, at'; उद्*úd*, 'up, up forth or out'; उप *úpa*, 'to, unto, toward'; नि *ní*, 'down; in, into'; निम् *nis*, 'out, forth'; पा *párā*, 'to a distance, away, forth'; पा *pári*, 'round about, around'; म्र *prá*, 'forward, onward, forth, fore';

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प्रति práti, 'in reversed direction, back to or against, against, in return':

चि vi, 'apart, asunder, away, out';

सम् sám, 'along, with, together'.

a. Some of these, of course, are used much more widely and frequently than others. In order of frequency in the older language (as estimated by the number of roots with which they are found used in RV. and AV.), they stand as follows: pra,  $\bar{a}$ , vi, sam, abhi, ni, ud, pari, anu, upa, prati, ava, nis, ati, apa, par $\bar{a}$ , adhi, api, antar. Api is of very limited use as prefix in the later language, having become a conjunction, 'too, also'.

b. The meanings given are only the leading ones. In combination with the roots they undergo much modification, both literal and figurative — yet seldom in such a way that the steps of transition from the fundamental sense are not easy to trace. Sometimes, indeed, the value of a root is hardly perceptibly modified by the addition of the prefix. An intensive force is not infrequently given by *pari*, *vi*, and *sam*.

1078. Prefixes essentially akin with the above, but more distinctly adverbial, and of more restricted use, are these:

ácha (or áchā), 'to, unto': tolerably frequent in  $\mathbb{RV}$ . (used with over twenty roots), but already very rare in  $\mathbb{AV}$ . (only two roots), and entirely lost in the later language;

 $\bar{a}vis$ , 'forth to sight, in view': used only with the roots  $bh\bar{u}$ , as, and kr;

tirás, 'through, crossways; out of sight': hardly used except with  $k_T$ ,  $dh\bar{a}$ ,  $bh\bar{u}$  (in RV., with three or four others);

purds, 'in front, forward': used with only half-a-dozen roots, especially  $k_r$ ,  $dh\bar{a}$ , i;

prādús, 'forth to view': only with bhū, as, kr.

A few others, as bahis, 'outside', vinā, 'without', sāksāt, 'in view', are still less removed from ordinary adverbs.

1079. Of still more limited use, and of noun rather than adverb-value are:

crad (or crath?), only with  $dh\bar{a}$  (in RV., once also with kr): craddh $\bar{a}$ , 'believe, credit';

 $hi\bar{n}$ , only with  $k_{\bar{r}}$  (and obsolete in the classical language):  $hi\bar{n}k_{\bar{r}}$ , 'make the sound hing, low, murmur'.

And beside these stand yet more fortuitous combinations: see below, 1091.

1080. More than one prefix may be set before the same root. Combinations of two are quite usual; of three, much less common; of more than three, rare. Their order is in general determined only by the requirements of the meaning, each added prefix bringing a further modification to the combination before which it is set. But  $\mathfrak{A}$  is never allowed in the later language, and only extremely rarely in the older, to be put in front of any of the others.

1081. In classical Sanskrit, the prefix always stands immediately before the verbal form.

In the older language, however, of both Veda and Brāhmana, its position is quite free: it may be separated from the verb by another word or words, and may even (much less often) come after the form to which it belongs; it may also stand alone, qualifying a verb that is understood, or conjointly with another prefix one that is expressed.

Thus, sá deváň  $\epsilon$  'há vakṣyati (RV.), 'he shall bring the gods hither'; prá ņa áyūnɨşi tāriṣat (AV.), 'may he lengthen out our lives'; táv á yātam úpa dravát (RV.), 'do ye two come hither quickly'; gámad vájebhir á sá naḥ (RV.), 'may he come with gifts hither to us'; pári mám pári me prajám pári naḥ pāhi yád dhánam (AV.), 'protect me, my progeny, and what wealth we own'; yátaḥ sadyá á ca párā ca yánti (AV.), 'from whence every day they advance and retire'; vy dhám sárveṇa pāpmánā [avṛtam] ví yákṣmeṇa sám áyuṣā (AV.), 'I have separated from all ill-luck, from disease, [I have joined myself] with life'.

The separation of the prefix from a verbal noun or adjective is very much more difficult, and of quite rare occurrence.

1082. As regards the accent of verb-forms compounded with prefixes, only the case needs to be considered in which the prefix stands (as always in the later language) immediately before the verb; otherwise, verb and prefix are treated as two entirely independent words.

1083. A personal verbal form, as has been seen above (592), is ordinarily unaccented: before such a form, the prefix has its own accent; or, if two or more precede the same form, the one nearest the latter is so accented, and the others lose their accent.

If, however, the verb-form is accented, the prefix or prefixes lose their accent.

That is, in every case, the verb along with its normally situated prefix or prefixes so far constitutes a unity that the whole combination is allowed to take but a single accent.

Examples are: páre 'hi nāri púnar é 'hi kṣiprâm (AV.), 'go away, woman; come again quickly'; áthá 'starh vipáretana (RV.), 'then scatter ye away to your home'; samácinuṣvā 'nusampráyāhi (AV.), 'gather together, go forth together after'; yád grhán upodāfti (AV.), when he goes up to the

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house'; evá ca tvárh sarama  $\bar{a}jagántha$  (RV.), 'now that you, Saramā, have thus come hither'; yéná "visitiah pravivéçithā 'páh (RV.), 'enveloped in which thou didst enter the waters'.

1084. A prefix, however, not seldom has a more independent value, as a general adverb of direction, or as a preposition (in the usual modern sense of that term), belonging to and governing a noun; in such case, it is not drawn in to form part of a verbal compound, but has its own accent. The two kinds of use shade into one another, and are not divisible by any distinct and fixed line.

1085. In combination with the non-personal parts of the verb-system, with participles, infinitives, and gerunds, the general rule is that the prefix loses its accent, 'in favor of the other member of the compound. But the prefix instead has sometimes the accent: namely, when combined —

**a.** with the passive participle in *ta* or *na*: thus, *páreta*, 'gone forth'; *antárhita*, 'concealed'; *ávapanna*, 'fallen'; *sámpūrna*, 'complete'.

b. with the infinitive in tu (972), in all its cases: thus, sánhartum, 'collect': ápidhātave, 'to cover up'; ávagantos, 'of descending'; the doubly accented dative in tavāi retains its final accent, but throws the other back upon the prefix: thus, ánvetavāi, 'for following'; ápabhartavāi, 'for carrying off.

1086. The closeness of combination between the root and the prefix is indicated not only by their unity of accent, but also by the euphonic rules (e.g. 185, 192), which allow the mutual adaptations of the two to be made to some extent as if they were parts of a unitary word.

1087. A few special irregularities call for notice :

**a.** In the later language, api, adhi, and ava, in connection with certain roots, sometimes lose their initial vowel: namely, api with nah and  $dh\bar{a}$ . adhi with  $sth\bar{a}$ , ava with  $g\bar{a}h$ . In the Veda, on the other hand, is is in a few cases found instead of nis with  $\gamma/kr$ .

b. The final vowel of a prefix, especially an *i*, is (oftenest in the older language) sometimes lengthened, especially in derivative words: thus, pratikūra, nīvrt, parihūra, vīrúdh, adhīvūsú, ápīvrta, abhīvartá; anūrúdh; prāvrs, ápūvasu.

In the Veda, the initial of anu is sometimes lengthened after negative an: thus, anānudā.

o. In combination with  $\gamma i$  'go', the prefixes para, pari, and pra sometimes change their r to l.

In this way is formed a kind of derivative stem  $pal\bar{a}y$ , 'fiee', inflected according to the *a*-class, in middle voice, which is not uncommon from the Brähmanas down, and has so lost the consciousness of its origin that it takes

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the augment prefixed: thus, apalāyisthās; it makes the periphrastic perfect palāyām cakre. The stem palyay, similarly inflected, seems to occur only in CB; and plāy has been found nowhere except in MS.

d. The root kr 'make' sometimes assumes (or retains from a more original condition) an initial s after the prefixes sam, pari, and upa: thus, samskurute, samaskurvan, samskria, pariskrivanti, pariskria, upaskria. And  $\gamma kr$  'scatter' is said by the grammarians to add s in the same manner, under certain circumstances, after upa and prati.

e. The passive participle of the roots  $d\bar{a}$  (give' and  $d\bar{a}$  (cut' has often the abbreviated form *tta* after a prefix — of which the final vowel, if *i*, is lengthened (compare the similar contraction with other elements, above, **955** c, and that of the derivative in *ti*, below, chap. XVII.). Thus, in AV. are found from  $d\bar{a}$  (give', vyátta, páritta, ápratītta : in Brāhmanas, from the same,  $\bar{a}tta$ , pratta, apátta; from  $d\bar{a}$  (cut', ávatta, nirávatta, samávatta.

f. The AB. has once niniyoja (instead of ni-yuyoja) from  $ni + \gamma yuj$ , and udaprapatat; and in MBh. are found a few cases like vivyāsa from  $vi + \gamma as$  (where, however, an intentional play on the word may be assumed: Delbrück); and anvasarhearat (instead of anusamacarat). Such unifications of prefix and root, with treatment of the result after the manner of a simple root, are extremely rare.

Some hold, however, that certain of the apparent roots of the language are results of this unification: thus,  $\bar{a}p$  from  $\bar{a} + ap$ , vyac from vi + ac, tyaj from ati + aj, etc. (see Weber, Ind. Stud., xiii. 61).

g. The loss of the initial s of sthā and stambh after the prefix ud has been noticed above (233a).

Also (137a, b), certain peculiarities of combination of a prefix with the initial vowel of a root.

1088. As to the more general adverbial uses of the prefixes, and their prepositional uses, see the next chapter.

1089. The adverbial prefixes su, 'well', and dus, 'ill', are said to be sometimes combined with verbal forms; but no examples of such combination are quotable from accentuated texts.

As to the addition of the comparative and superlative suffixes  $tar\bar{a}m$  and  $tarra\bar{a}m$  to verbs, see above, **473**.

#### Other Verbal Compounds.

1090. It has been seen above that some of the prepositional prefixes are employed in combination with only very small classes of roots, namely those whose meaning makes them best fitted for auxiliary and periphrastic uses — such as  $k_r$ , 'make',  $bh\bar{u}$  and as, 'be',  $dh\bar{a}$ , 'put', *i*, 'go' — and that the first three of these are widely used in combination with a derivative in  $\bar{a}m$  to make a periphrastic conjugation. Such roots have also been, from the earliest period of the language, but with increasing frequency, used in somewhat analogous combinations with other elements, substantive and adjective as well as adverbial; and this has become, in part, developed finally into a regular and indefinitely extensible method of increasing the resources of verbal expression.

1091. Most analogous with  $hi\bar{n} + \gamma k_{\bar{r}}$  (1079) are a few other onomatopoetic compounds in the Veda:  $akkhal\bar{k}k'tya$  (RV.), 'making a crackling sound',  $ja\bar{n}jan\bar{a}bh\bar{a}vant$  (RV.), 'fimmering', and  $alal\bar{a}bh\bar{a}vant$  (RV.), 'making merry'; and (in AB.)  $babab\bar{a}kurvan$ , 'crackling'. And AV. has masmasa with  $\gamma k_{\bar{r}}$ (TS. and VS., masmasa), 'crush'.

Further, combinations of  $\sqrt{kr}$  with terms used at the sacrifice, as vásat, sváhā, svadhå, svagå: at first phrases only, and noun-compounds, but becoming verbal combinations in which the prefixed word is treated like a prepositional prefix: thus, svagākaróti (ÇB.: but svadhå karóti, TA.); and other prefixes are set before them, as anuvasatkuryāt.

1092. a. The noun names, 'obeisance, homage', in a still more purely noun-value, becomes combined with  $\sqrt{kr}$ : in the Veda, only with the gerund, in nameskftya (beside hastagfhya and karnagfhya: above, 990.).

b. A solitary combination with  $\gamma i$ , 'go', is shown by the accusative ástam, 'home'; which, appearing only in ordinary phrases in RV., is in AV. compounded with the participles — in astamyánt, astamesyánt, ástamita (with accent like that of ordinary compounds with a prefix) — and in the Brāhmanas and the later language is treated quite like a prefix: thus, astaméti (QB.).

c. Other ordinary accusative forms of adjectives in combination with verbal derivatives of kr and  $bh\bar{u}$  are found here and there in the older language: thus, crtankftya and nagnamkftya (TS.);  $nagnambh\bar{a}vuka$ ,  $p\bar{a}manambh\bar{a}vuka$ , etc. (TS. et al.).

1093. In the early but not in the earliest language, a nounstem thus compounded with  $k_r$  or  $bh\bar{u}$ , in verbal nouns and ordinary derivatives, and then also in verbal forms, begins to assume a constant ending  $\bar{\imath}$  (of doubtful origin).

There is no instance of this in RV., unless the  $\bar{\imath}$  of akkhalikftya (above, 1091) is to be so explained. In AV., besides the obscure  $v\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}k_{F}ta$  and  $v\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}r\dot{a}$ , is found only *phalikáraņa*. In the Brāhmaņa language, examples begin to occur occasionally — *çyetī* and *mithunī* in TS.; these and *phalī*,  $kr\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$ ,  $udv\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$  in TB.; the first three, with suphalī,  $ek\bar{\imath}$ ,  $sv\bar{\imath}$ ,  $br\bar{a}hman\bar{\imath}$ , and *daridrī* in ÇB.; and so on. The accent of the combination is in general accordance with the accent of compounds with the usual prefixes; and if the prefixed stem takes the tone, this rests upon the final  $\bar{\imath}$ . Sometimes a mere collocation takes place: thus, *mithunī* bhávantīs (TS.), phalī kriyámānānām (TB.), vajrī bhutvā (TA.). The  $\bar{\imath}$  is variously treated: now as an uncombinable final, as in *çyetī* akuruta and mithunī abhavan (TS.); now as liable to the ordinary conversions, as in *mithuny ànayā syām* and *svydkurvata* (QB.).

The examples in accentuated texts, and especially those in which the

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verb is entitled to the tone, are too few to furnish more than a fragmentary illustration of the formation.

Out of such beginnings has grown in the later language the following rule:

1094. Any noun or adjective stem is liable to be compounded with verbal forms or derivatives of the roots  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $k_r$  and  $\frac{1}{2}bh\bar{u}$  (and, it is said, of  $\overline{3}$ H as also; but such cases, if they occur, are at least extremely rare), in the manner of a verbal prefix. If the final of the stem be an *a* or *i*-vowel, it is changed to  $\xi \bar{\imath}$ ; if an *u*-vowel, it is changed to  $\overline{3}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ .

It is prescribed also that a final r become  $r\bar{i}$ , and that as and an be changed to  $\bar{i}$ ; but no genuine examples appear to be quotable.

Examples are: stambhibhavati, 'becomes a post'; skacittibhūya, 'becoming of one mind'; upahārīkarosi, 'thou makest an offering'; nakhaprahārajarjarīkŗta, 'torn to pieces with blows of the claws'; sithilībhavanti, 'become loose'; kuņdalīkŗta, 'ring-shaped.'

1095. Of all the forms which constitute or are attached to the verbal system, the passive participle is the one most closely assimilated in its treatment as a combinable element to an ordinary adjective. Next to it come the gerund and the gerundives. Combinations of the kind here treated of are especially common with passive participles and gerunds.

# CHAPTER XVI.

# INDECLINABLES.

1096. THE indeclinable words are less distinctly divided into separate parts of speech in Sanskrit than is usual elsewhere in Indo-European language — especially owing to the fact that the class of prepositions hardly has a real existence, but is represented by certain adverbial words which are to a greater or less extent used prepositionally. They will, however, be briefly described here under the usual heads.

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#### Adverbs.

1097. Adverbs by Suffix. Classes of adverbs, sometimes of considerable' extent, are formed by the addition of adverb-making suffixes especially to pronominal roots or stems, but also to noun and adjective stems.

There is no ultimate difference between these suffixes and the caseendings in declension; and the adverbs of this division sometimes are used in the manner of cases.

1098. With the suffix *tas* are made adverbs having an ablative sense, and not rarely also an ablative construction. Such are made:

**a.** From pronominal roots, in *átas*, *itás*, *tátas*, *yátas*, *kútas*, *amútas*, *svatas* (not found earlier); and from the pronominal stems in t or d (494) of the personal pronouns: thus, *mattás* (only example in  $\nabla$ .), *tvattas*, *asmattas*, *yusmattas*.

b. From noun and adjective stems of every class, since the earliest period, but more freely later: thus, mukhatás, agratás, rbhutás, hritás, cirsatás, nastás, yajustas, pārátas, anyátas, sarvátas, daksimatás, abhīpatás (once, in RV., from a case-form: pateutás).

c. From a few prepositions: thus, abhilas, parilas, ántitas.

Examples of ablative construction are : tâtah sasthát (AV.), 'from that sixth'; tâto jydyām (AV.), 'older than they'; kutaç eid deçād āgatya (H.), 'arriving from some region or other'.

But the distinctive ablative meaning is not infrequently effaced, and the adverb has a more locative value: thus,  $agrat \delta s$ , 'in front';  $asmateam \bar{s}patas$ , 'in our presence'; dharmatas, 'in accordance with duty';  $ch\bar{a}gatas$  (H.), 'with reference to the gost'.

1099. With the suffix tra (in V. often  $tr\bar{a}$ ) are made adverbs having a locative sense, and occasionally also a locative construction.

These adverbs are formed from pronominal roots, namely átra, tátra, yátra, kútra, amútra, asmatrá, satrá; and also from noun and adjective stems, as anyátra, viçvátra, samānátra, martyatrá, daksiņatrá, devatrá, purutrá, bahutrá.

The words in (accented) trd are Vedic only, except satrd, 'altogether' (of which satram is also given as an alternative form).

Examples of quasi-locative or locative construction are : hásta á daksinatrá (RV.), 'in the right hand'; tatrā 'ntare (H.), 'in that interval'; prabhulvarh tatra yujyate (H.), 'sovereignty is suited to him'; ekatra puruse (MBh.), 'in a single man'.

As the locative case is used also to express the goal of motion (**304**), so the adverbs in *tra* have sometimes an accusative as well as a locative value: thus, *tatra gacha*, 'go there or thither'; *pathó devatrá yánān* (RV.), 'roads that go to the gods'. 1100. One or two other suffixes of locality are:

**a.** ha, in ihá, 'here', kúha, 'where?' and the Vedic viçváha (also viçváhā, viçváhā), 'always' (compare below, '1104, end).

b. tat, which is added to words having already a local or directive value: thus, to adverbial accusatives, as prdktat, udaktat; to adverbial ablatives, as arditat, uttarditat, parakditat; and to prepositional adverbs, as adhastat, avastat, parastat, purastat, bahistat. Apparently by analogy with these last, the suffix has occasionally the form stat: thus, uparistat.

c. hi, in uttaráhi (ÇB.) and daksiņāhi (no occurrence).

1101. By the suffix  $th\bar{a}$  are made adverbs of manner, especially from pronominal roots or stems.

Thus, táthā, yáthā; kathá and itthá (by the side of which stand kathám and itthám); and the rare imáthā and amúthā. And átha (V. often áthā), 'so then', doubtless belongs with them. Further, from a few adjective and noun stems: as, viçváthā, sarváthā, anyáthā, ubhayáthā, itaráthā, yatamáthā, ūrdhváthā, ŗtuthá, nāmáthā (once, AV.).

Yathā becomes usually toneless in V., when used in the sense of *iva* after a noun forming the subject of comparison: thus,  $t\bar{a}y\dot{a}vo\ yath\bar{a}$  (RV.), 'like thieves'.

1102. One or two other suffixes of manner are:

**a.** ti, in iti, "thus', very commonly used, from the earliest period, as particle of quotation, following the words quoted.

Examples are: brahmajāyé 'yám fli céd ávocan (RV.), 'if they have said "this is a Brahman's wife"'; tám devá abruvan vrátya kím nú tisthasť 'ti (AV.), 'the gods said to him: "Vratya, why do you stand?"' Often, the iti is used more pregnantly: thus, yáh craddádhāti sánti devá fli (AV.), 'whoever ' has faith that the gods exist'; tam vyāghram munir mūsiko 'yam iti paçyati (H.), 'the sage looks upon that tiger as being really a mouse'; yūyam kim iti sīdatha (H.), 'why (lit'ly, alleging what reason) do you sit?' Or the iti marks an onomatopæia, or indicates a gesture: thus, bahís te astu bắt fli (AV.), 'let it come out of you with a "splash"; fly ágre krisaty áthé 'ti (QB.), 'he ploughs first this way, then this way'. A word made by iti logically predicate to an object is usually nominative: thus, svargó loká fli yám vádanti (AV.), 'what they call "the heavenly world"; vidarbharājatanayām damayantī 'ti viddhi mām (MBh.), 'know me for the Vidarbha-king's daughter, Damayanti by name'; but ajñam būlam ity āhuļ (M.), 'they call an ignorant man a child'.

With the suffix of fli is to be compared that of tâti etc. (519).

b. va in iva (toneless), 'like, as', and eva (in V. often eva), earlier 'thus', later a particle emphasizing the preceding word; for 'thus' is used later the related evam, which hardly occurs in RV., and in AV. only with Vvid: as, evam vidvan, 'knowing thus'.

In later Vedic (AV. etc.) iva more often counts for only a single syllable.

1103. a. By the suffix  $d\bar{a}$  are made adverbs of time, but almost only from pronominal roots.

Thus, tadá, yadá, kadá, idá (only in V.); and sádā, beside which is found earlier sádam. Besides these, in the older language, only sarvadá; later a few others, as anyadā, ekadā, nityadā.

b. By the perhaps related danim are made idánim, tadánim, viçvadánim.

c. With rhi are made, from pronominal roots, tárhi, etárhi, yárhi, kárhi, amúrhi.

**d.** The suffix di, found only in  $y\dot{a}di$ , 'if', is perhaps related with  $d\bar{a}$ , in form as in meaning.

1104. By the suffix  $dh\bar{a}$  are formed adverbs especially from numerals, signifying '-fold, times, ways', etc.

Thus, ekadhá, dvidhá (also dvídhā and dvedhá), trídhā (in the old language usually tredhá), saddhá (also sodhá and saddhā), dvādaçadhá, sahasradhá, and so on. Also, naturally, from words having a quasi-numeral character: thus, tatidhá, bahudhá, purudhá, viçvádhā, çaçvadhá, etāvaddhá. In a very few cases, also from general noun and adjective stems: thus, mitradhá (AV.), priyadhá (TS.), rjudhá (TB.), pariştubdhā (PB.).

The particle ddha or  $ddh\bar{a}$ , a Vedic equivalent of dtha, probably belongs here (*purudhá* and *viçvádha*, with shortened final, occur a few times in RV.); also addhá, 'in truth'; and perhaps sahá, 'with', which has an equivalent sadha- in several Vedic compounds. And the other adverbs in ha (1100 a) may be of like origin.

1105. From a few numerals are made multiplicative adverbs with s: namely, dvis, tris, and catúr (probably, for catúrs).

The corresponding word for 'once', sakit, is a compound rather than a derivative; and the same character belongs still more evidently to pañcakitvas, navakitvas, aparimitakitvas, etc., though ket and ketvas are regarded by the native grammarians as suffixes (AV. has dáca kitvas and saptá kitvas).

1106. By the suffix *c*^{ds} are made, especially from numeral or quantitative stems, adverbs of quantity or measure or manner, generally used distributively.

Thus, ekaçás, 'one by one', çataçás, 'by hundreds', riuçás, 'season by season', pacchas, 'foot by foot', aksaraçás, 'syllable by syllable', gaṇaçás, 'in crowds', stambaçás, 'by bunches', paruççás, 'limb by limb', tāvacchás, 'in such and such number or quantity': and, in a more general way, sarvaçás: 'wholly', mukhyaças, 'principally', krchraças, 'stingily'.

1107. By the suffix vát are made with great freedom, in every period of the language, adverbs signifying 'after the manner of, like', etc.

Thus, angirasvát, 'like Angiras', manusvát (RV.), 'as Manu did', jamadagnivát, 'after the manner of Jamadagni'; pūrvavát or pratnavát or purānavát, 'as of old', kākatālīyavat, 'after the fashion of the crow and the palm-fruit'.

This is really the adverbially used accusative (with adverbial shift of accent: below, 1111e; of the suffix vant (next chapter), which in the Veda makes certain adjective compounds of a similar meaning: thus, tvdvant, 'like thee', mdvant, 'of my sort', etc.

1108. By the suffix sat are made adverbs signifying 'into the condition of', which are used along with verbs of becoming and of making.

Thus,  $agnis\overline{at} + \gamma lar$ , 'reduce to fire, burn up';  $bhasmas\overline{at} + \gamma bh\overline{u}$ , 'turn to ashes';  $\overline{atmas\overline{atkrta}}$ , 'made one's own'.

These derivatives are unknown in the earlier language, and not common in the later. The s of sāt is not liable to conversion into s. The connection with the following verb is not so close as to require the use of the gerund in ya: thus, bhasmasātkrivā (not -kriya: above, **990**).

1109. Suffixes, not of noun-derivation or inflection, may be traced with more or less plausibility in a few other adverbs. Thus, for example, in *prātār*, 'early', and sanutār, 'away'; in daksiņft, 'with right hand', and cikitvīt, 'with consideration'; in nūnām, 'now', and nūnānām, 'variously'. But the cases are in the main too rare and doubtful to be worth notice here.

The adverbs of this division are almost never used prepositionally. Those of the next division, however, are in many instances so used.

1110. Case-forms used as Adverbs. A large number of adverbs are more or less evidently cases in form, made from stems which are not otherwise in use. Also many cases of known stems, pronominal or noun or adjective, are used with an adverbial value, being distinguished from proper cases by some difference of application, which is sometimes accompanied by an irregularity of form.

1111. The accusative is the case most frequently and widely used adverbially. Thus:

a. Of pronominal stems: as, yid, 'if, when, that', etc.; tid, 'then' etc.; kim, 'why, whether', etc.; idám, 'now, here'; adás, 'yonder'; and so on. Of like value, apparently, are the (mostly Vedic) particles kåd, kám and kam(?), id, cid (common at every period), dmád and sumád, im and sim (by some regarded as still possessing pronoun-value), -kim.

Compounds with *id* are *céd*. 'if', *néd*, 'lest', *svid*, *kuvid*; with *cid*, *kúcid*; with *-kīm*, *nákīm* and *mákīm*, and *ákīm*.

b. Of noun-stems: as, náma, 'by name'; súkham, 'happily'; kámam, 'at will, if you please'; núktam, 'by night'; ráhas, 'secretly'; osám, 'quickly' (V.); and so on.

c. Of adjective stems, in great numbers: as, satyám, 'truly'; cirám, 'long'; nítyam, 'constantly'; bhúyas, 'more, again'; and so on.

1. The neuter singular is the case commonly employed in this way; and it is formed and used adverbially from a large class of compound stems which do not occur in adjective use (the so-called *avyayibhāva-compounds*: below, chap. XVIII.). 2. But the feminine singular also is sometimes used; especially in the so-called adverbial endings of comparison, tarām and tamām, which are attached to particles, and even, as it is claimed (473), to verb-forms: thus, pratarām, pratamām, uccūistarām, çanāistarām, jyoktamām.

In the oldest language (RV. and AV.), the neuter instead of the feminine form of these suffixes is almost alone in use: see 1119.

d. Many adverbs of obscure form or connection are to be explained with probability as accusatives of obsolete noun or adjective stems: examples are tunnim, 'in silence'; sāyám, 'at evening'; álakam, 'vainly'; sākám, 'together, with (prep.)'; áram or álam, 'sufficient' (in the later language used with Vkrin the manner of a prefix); prāyas, 'usually'; īsát, 'somewhat'; amnás, 'unexpectedly'; bahis, 'outside'; mithu and mithás, múhu and múhus, játu, and so on. Madrik etc., and ninik (in BV.), are perhaps contracted forms of adjectives having Vac or añc as their final (407 ff.); and visunák and vithak, with pithak and fidhak, may be of the same character. The presence of other roots as final members is also probable for ucádhak, ūnuták and āyusák, anusihú and susihú, yugapát, etc. Compare also the forms in am beside those in  $\bar{a}$ , above, 1099, 1101, 1103 a.

e. In (Vedic) dravát, 'quickly', is to be seen a change of accent for the adverbial use (pple drávant, 'running'); and drahyát, 'stoutly' (RV., once), may be another example. The comparative and superlative suffixes (above, c) show a like change; and it is also to be recognized in the derivatives with odt (1107).

1112. The instrumental is also very often used with adverbial value: generally in the singular, but sometimes also in the plural. Thus:

a. Of pronominal stems: as, end and ayd, kaya, and, sana, ama, amayd.

b. Of noun-stems: as, ksanena, 'instantly'; acesena, 'completely'; vicesena, 'especially'; dívā, 'by day'; distyā, 'fortunately'; sāhasā, 'suddenly'; aktubhis, 'by night'; and so on.

c. Of adjectives, both neuter (not distinguishable from masculine) and feminine: as, dâksinena, 'to the south'; úttarena, 'to the north'; ántarena, 'within'; ciréna, 'long'; — cánāis and cánakūis, 'slowly'; uceāts, 'on high'; parācūts, 'afar'; távisībhis, 'mightily'; and so on.

d. More doubtful cases, mostly from the older language, may be instanced as follows: tiraccátā, devátā, bāhútā, and sasvártā (all RV.), homonymous instrumentals from nouns in tā; dvitā, tādītnā, ārmā, mṣsā, vīthā, sācā, asthā (?), mudhā (not V.), adhunā (Br. and later).

e. Adverbially used instrumentals are (in the older language), oftener than any other case, distinguished from normal instrumentals by differences of form: thus, especially, by an irregular accent: as, and and dfvā (given above); perhaps  $g\hat{u}h\bar{a}$ ;  $ap\bar{u}k\dot{a}$ ,  $\bar{a}say\dot{a}$ ,  $kuhay\dot{a}$  (?);  $naktay\dot{a}$ ,  $svapnay\dot{a}$ ,  $saman\dot{a}$ ;  $adatray\dot{a}$ ,  $rtay\dot{a}$ ,  $ubhay\dot{a}$ ,  $sumnay\dot{a}$  (?);  $daksin\dot{a}$ ,  $madhy\dot{a}$ ;  $n\bar{c}\dot{a}$ ,  $pr\bar{c}c\dot{a}$ ,  $ucc\dot{a}$ ,  $pacc\dot{a}$ ,  $tiracc\dot{a}$ ; — in a few u-stems, by a y inserted before the ending, which is accented: thus, amuyá (given above), āçuyá, sādhuyá, raghuyá, dhṛṣṇuyá, anuṣṭhuyá, mithuyá; — and urviyá (for urvyá) and víçvyā (properly víçvayā) are more slightly irregular.

1113. The dative has only very seldom an adverbial use. Examples are (from the later language only): cirāya, 'long'; arthāya, 'for the sake of'; ahmāya, 'presently'.

1114. The ablative is not infrequently used adverbially. Thus:

a. Of pronominal stems: as,  $k \dot{a} s m \ddot{u} t$ , 'why?'  $a k a s m \ddot{u} t$ , 'casually, unexpectedly';  $\dot{d} t$ ,  $t \dot{d} t$ ,  $y \dot{d} t$  (V.: normal forms, instead of the pronominal *a sm \ddot{u} t* etc.).

b. Of noun-stems: as, āsát, 'near'; ārát, 'afar'; balāt, 'forcibly'; kutūhalāt, 'emulously'; sakāçāt, 'on the part of'.

c. Oftenest, of adjective stems: as, dūrát, 'afar'; nīcát, 'below'; paçcát, 'behind'; sāksát, 'plainly, actually'; samantūt, 'completely'; acirūt, 'not long'.

d. In a few instances, adverbially used ablatives likewise show a changed accent in the early language: thus,  $ap\bar{a}k\dot{a}t$ , 'from afar';  $am\dot{a}t$ , 'from near by';  $san\dot{a}t$ , 'from of old' (but instr.  $s\dot{a}n\bar{a}$ );  $utlar\dot{a}t$ , 'from the north';  $adhar\dot{a}t$ , 'below'.

1115. The genitive is almost never used adverbially.

In the older language occur aktós, 'by night', and vástos, 'by day'; later, cirasya, 'long'.

1116. The locative is sometimes used with adverbial value. Thus:

From noun and adjective stems:  $\bar{u}k\ell$ , 'near';  $\bar{u}r\ell$  and  $d\bar{u}r\ell$ , 'afar'; abhisvar\ell, 'behind'; astam $\bar{u}k\ell$ , 'at home'; rt', 'without' (prep.); ågre, 'in front'; sthäne, 'suitably'; sapadi, 'immediately'; -arthe and -krte (common in composition), 'for the sake of'; aparisu, 'in after time'.

1117. Even a nominative form appears to be stereotyped into an adverbial value in (Vedic) kis, interrogative particle, and its compounds nákis and mákis, negative particles.

1118. Verbal Prefixes and kindred words. The verbal prefixes, described in the preceding chapter (1076 ff.), are properly adverbs, having a special office and mode of use in connection with verbal roots and their more immediate derivatives.

Their occasional looser connection with the verb has been noticed above (1084). In the value of general adverbs, however, they only very rarely occur (except as dpi has mainly changed its office from prefix to adverb or conjunction in the later language); but their prepositional uses are much more frequent and important: see below, 1125. In composition with nouns, they (like other adverbial elements) not infrequently have an adjective value: see below, chap. XVIII.

1119. Several of the prefixes (as noticed above, 473-4) form comparative and superlative adjectives, by the suffixes tara and tama, or ra and ma: thus, that and uttamá; addhara and adhamá, ápara and apamá, ávara and avamá, úpara and upamá; and prathamá is doubtless of the same character; also, ántara and ántama. And accusatives of such derivative adjectives (for the most part not otherwise found in use) have the value of comparatives, and rarely superlatives, to the prefixes themselves: thus, sámicitam cit samitarám sám ciçādhi (AV.), 'whatever is quickened, do thou still further quicken'; vitarám ví kramasa (RV.), 'stride out yet more widely'; prá tám naya pratarám vásyo ácha (RV.), 'lead him forward still further toward advantage'; úd enam uttarám naya (AV.), 'lead him up still higher'.

Besides those instanced, are found also nitarám, avatarám, parātarám, parastarám. In the Brāhmaņas and later (above, 1111c), the feminine accusative is used instead: thus, pratitarám, sarhtarám, nitarám, uttarám, pratarám and pratamám (and sarhtarám, RV., once).

1120. Kindred in origin and character with the verbal prefixes, and used like them except in composition with verbs, are a few other adverbs: thus, avás, 'down'; adhás, 'below'; parás, 'far off'; purá, 'before'; antará (apparently, antár +á), 'among'; ánti, 'near'; upári, 'above': and sahá (already mentioned, 1104), 'along, with', and sácā, 'together, with', may be noticed with them. *Viná*, 'without', and visu-, 'apart', appear to be related with ví.

1121. Inseparable Prefixes. A small number of adverbial prefixes are found only in combination with other elements. Thus:

a. The negative prefix a or an — an before vowels, a before consonants.

It is combined especially with innumerable nouns and adjectives; much more rarely, with adverbs, as akútra and ápunar (RV.), ánadhas (TB.), akasmāt, asakrt; and, according to the grammarians, sometimes also with pronouns (asas, anesas), and with verbs (apacati, 'does not cook'), but no such combinations appear to be quotable.

The independent negative adverbs,  $n\dot{a}$  and  $m\dot{a}$ , are only in rare and exceptional instances used in composition: see below, 1122 b.

b. The comitative prefix sa, used instead of the preposition sám, and exchangeably with sahá, before nouns and adjectives.

c. The prefix of dispraise dus, 'ill, badly' (identical with  $\sqrt{dus}$ : 225).

It is combined in the same manner as a or an. Of combinations with a verbal form, at least a single example appears to be quotable: *duccarati* (R.), 'behaves ill' (BR.).

ADVERBS.

d. The corresponding laudatory prefix su, 'well', is in general so closely accordant in its use with the preceding that it is best mentioned here, through it occurs not rarely as an independent particle in the oldest language (in RV., more than two hundred times; in the peculiar parts of AV., only fourteen times, and even occasionally later.

No combination of su with a verbal form appears to be quotable from any accentuated text (though the worthless pada-text of AV. xix. reads su-ápāyati at 49.10). K. has na su vijñāyete and na vāi su viduķ (or suvijñāyete?).

e. The exclamatory and usually depreciative prefixed forms of the interrogative pronoun (506) are most analogous with the inseparable prefixes.

1122. Miscellaneous Adverbs. Other words of adverbial character and office, not clearly referable to any of the classes hitherto treated, may be mentioned as follows:

**a.** Asseverative particles (in part, Vedic only): thus, angá, hánta, kila, khálu, tú (rare in older language), vāl, vāvá (in Brāhmaņa language only), hi, hiná, u, áha, ha, gha, samaha, sma, bhala.

Of these, hánta is a word of assent; hf has won also an illative meaning, and accents the verb with which it stands in connection (595 d); sma sometimes gives a past meaning to a present tense (778 b); u is often combined with the final a of other particles: thus, átho, nó, mó, utó, ápo, pró; but also with that of verb-forms, as dattó, vidmó. The final o thus produced is pragrhya or uncombinable (138 c).

Particles of kindred value, already mentioned above, are id, kám or kam, eid, játu, evá.

Some of the asseverative particles are much used in the later artificial poetry with a purely expletive value, as devices to help make out the metre  $(p\bar{a}dap\bar{u}rana, 'verse-fillers')$ ; so especially ha, hi, tu, sma.

b. Negative particles are: ná, signifying simple negation; má, signifying prohibition.

As to the construction of the verb with ma, see above, 579-80.

In the Veda,  $n\dot{u}$  (or  $n\dot{u}$ : 248 a) has also sometimes a negative meaning. For the Vedic  $n\dot{u}$  of comparison, see below, d.

In nahi, ná is combined with hi, both elements retaining their full meaning; also with id in néd. 'lest'. It is perhaps present in nanú and caná, but not in hiná (RV., once). In general, neither ná nor má is used in composition to make negative compounds, but, instead, the inseparable negative prefix a or an (1121a): exceptions are the Vedic particles nákis and mákis, nákim and mákim; also naciram and māciram, and a few others.

c. Interrogative particles are only those already given: kád, kím, kuvid, svid, nanú, of which the last introduces an objection or expostulation.

# 1122]

**d**. Of particles of comparison have been mentioned the toneless *iva*, and *yathā* (also toneless when used in the same way). Of frequent occurrence in the oldest language is also *ná*, having (without loss of accent) the same position and value as the preceding.

Examples are: residurés foum ná srjata durésim (RV.), 'let loose your enmity like an arrow at the enemy of the singer'; váyo ná vrksám (AV.), (as birds to the tree';  $g\bar{a}uro'$  ná treitáh piba (RV.), 'drink like a thirsty buffalo'. This use is generally explained as being a modification or adaptation of the negative one: thus, '[although, to be sure] not [precisely] a thirsty buffalo'; and so on.

e. Of particles of place, besides those already mentioned, may be noticed kvà (in V., always to be read kúa).

f. Particles of time are: nú, 'now' (also nú: nūnám was mentioned above, 1109) adyá and sadyás and sadivas (RV., once,, 'today, at once' (all held to contain the element div or dyu), hyás, 'yesterday', çvás, 'tomorrow', jyók (also related with dyu, 'long'; púnar, 'again'.

g. Of particles of manner, besides those already mentioned, may be noticed  $n\dot{a}n\bar{a}$ , 'variously' (for  $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}n\dot{a}m$ , its derivative, see 1109); sasvár (RV.), 'secretly'.

In the above classifications are included all the Vedic adverbial words, and most of those of the later language: for the rest, see the dictionaries.

#### Prepositions.

1123. There is, as already stated, no proper class of prepositions (in the modern sense of that term), no body of words having for their exclusive office the "government" of nouns. But many of the adverbial words indicated above are used with nouns in a way which approximates them to the more fully developed prepositions of other languages.

If one and another of such words — as  $vin\bar{a}$ , *ite* — occurs almost solely in prepositional use, this is merely fortuitous, and of no consequence.

1124. Words are used prepositionally along with all the noun-cases excepting the dative. But in general their office is directive only, determining more definitely, or strengthening, the proper case-use of the noun. Sometimes, however, the caseuse is not easy to trace, and the noun then seems to be more immediately "governed" by the preposition — that is, to have its case-form more arbitrarily determined by its association with the latter. This is oftenest true of the accusative; and of the genitive, which has, here as elsewhere (294), suffered an extension of its normal sphere of use.

1125. The adverbs by derivative form (1097 ff.) have least of a prepositional value (exceptions are especially a few made with the suffix *tas*: 1098).

Most of the verbal prefixes (exceptions are *ud*, *ni*, *parā*, *pra*: and *ava* and *ni* are almost such) have their prepositional or quasi-prepositional uses with cases; but much more widely in the older time than in the later: in the classical language the usage is mainly restricted to *prati*, *anu*, and  $\bar{a}$ .

Most of the directive words akin with the more proper prefixes are used prepositionally: some of them — as saha,  $vin\bar{a}$ , upari, antar $\bar{a}$ , pur $\bar{a}$  — freely, earlier and later.

The case-forms used adverbially are in many instances used prepositionally also: oftenest, as was to be expected, with the genitive; but frequently, and from an early time, with the accusative; more rarely with other cases.

We will take up now the cases for a brief exposition, beginning with those that are least freely used.

1126. The Locative. This case is least of all used with words that can claim the name of preposition. Of directives, antár and its later derivative antará, meaning 'within, in', are oftenest added to it, and in the classical language as well as earlier. Of frequent Vedic use with it are  $\bar{a}$ and adhi (illustrated above, **305**); — api and upa are much rarer: thus, yá apám ápi vraté [sánti] (RV.), 'who are in the domain of the waters'; amár yá úpa sárye [sánti] (RV.), 'who are up yonder in the sun'; — sácā, 'along with', is not rare in RV., but almost entirely unknown later: thus, pitróh sácā satī, 'staying with her parents'.

1127. The Instrumental. The directives used with this case are almost only those which contain the associative pronominal root sa: as saha (most frequent), sūkam, sūrdham, samam, samayū, saratham; and, in the Veda, the prefix sam: as, te sumatibhih sám pátnībhir ná vīsaņo nasīmahi (RV.), 'may we be united with thy favors as men with their spouses'. By substitution of the instrumental for the ablative of separation (283), vinā, 'without' (not Vedic), takes sometimes the instrumental; and so, in the Veda, avas, 'down', and paras, 'beyond', with which the ablative is also, and much more normally, construed. And adhi, in RV., is used with the instrumentals snúnā and snúbhis, where the locative would be expected.

1128. The Ablative. In the prepositional constructions of the ablative (as was pointed out and partly illustrated above, 298), the ablative value of the case, and the merely directive value of the added particle, are for the most part clearly to be traced. Many of the verbal prefixes are more or less frequently joined in the older language with this case: oftenest, adhi and pari; more sporadically, anu, apa, ava, prati, and the separatives mis and vi. The change of meaning of the ablative with  $\bar{a}$ , 'hither', by which

## XVI. INDECLINABLES.

it comes to fill the office of its opposite, the accusative, was sufficiently explained above (293 c). Of directive words akin with the prefixes, many as bahis, puras, avas, adhas, paras, purā, vinā, and tiras, 'out of knowledge of' — accompany this case by a perfectly regular construction. Also the case-forms arvāk, prāk, paccāt, ūrdhvam, pūrvam, param, parena, prabhŗti; and rte, 'without', of which the natural construction with an ablative is predominant earlier. Antikam, 'near', is said to take the ablative as well as its more normal companion the genitive.

1129. The Accusative. Many of the verbal prefixes and related words take an accompanying accusative. Most naturally (since the accusative is essentially the 'to'-case), those that express a motion or action toward anything: as abhi, prati, anu, upa, a, ati and adhi in the sense of 'over on to' or 'across, beyond', tiras, 'through', antar and antara when meaning 'between', pari, 'around'. Examples are: yah pradiço abhi suryo vicaste (AV.), 'what quarters the sun looks abroad unto'; abodhy again praty ayatim usasam (RV.), 'Agni has been awakened to meet the advancing dawn'; gached kadacit svajanam prati (MBh.), 'she might go somewhither to her own people'; imam praksyami nrpatim prati (MBh.), 'him I will ask with reference to the king'; máma cittám ánu cittébhir é 'ta (AV.), 'follow after my mind with your minds'; é 'hy a nah (AV.), 'come hither to us'; úpa na é 'hy arcán (RV.), 'come hither unto us'; yo devo martyan ati (AV.), 'the god who is beyond mortals'; adhisthäya várcasá 'dhy anyan (AV.), 'excelling above others in glory'. Also abhitas and paritas, which have a like value with the simple abhi and pari; and upari, 'above' (oftener with genitive). Less accordant with ordinary accusative constructions is the use of this case with adhas, paras, puras, vinā, beside other cases which seem more suited to the meaning of those particles. And the same may be said of most of the adverbial case-forms with which the accusative is used. Thus, a number of instrumentals of situation or direction : as yé 'varena "dityam, yé parena "dityam (TB.), 'those who are below the sun, those who are beyond the sun'; antarena yonim (CB.), 'within the womb'; te hi 'dam antarena sarvam (AB.), 'for all this universe is between them'; úttarena garhapatyam (CB.), 'to the north of the householder's fire'; daksinena védim (QB.), to the south of the sacrificial hearth'; daksinena vrksavātikām (Çak.), 'to the right of the orchard'; nikasā, 'near to'. Similarly, urdhvam and purvam have an accusative object as well as an ablative; and the same is true later of rte. Abhimukham, 'toward', has a more natural right to construction with this case; and samáya (later samaya), 'through between', is analogous with antara and tiras.

1130. The Genitive. The words which are accompanied by the genitive are mostly case-forms of nouns, or of adjectives used substantively, retaining enough of the noun-character to take this case as their natural adjunct. Such are the locatives agre, 'in front of',  $abhy\bar{a}ce$ , 'near', arthe and kyte, 'for the sake of', nimitte and hetau, 'by reason of', madhye, 'in the midst of'; and other cases, as artham and arthaya, antikam and abhimukham (which have also other constructions),  $k\bar{a}ran\bar{a}t$ ,  $sak\bar{a}c\bar{a}t$ , hetos. And really, although

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less directly and obviously, of the same character are other adjective cases (some of them showing other constructions, already noticed): as adharena, uttarena and uttarāt, daksiņena and daksiņāt, paccāt, ūrdhvam, anantaram, samaksam, sūksāt. More questionable, and illustrations rather of the general looseness of use of the genitive, are its constructions (almost wholly unknown in the oldest language) with more proper words of direction: thus, with the derivative paritas, paratas, and antitas, and parastāt and purastāt (these found in the Brāhmana language: as, samvatsarasya parastāt, 'after a year'; sūktasya purastát, 'before the hymn' [AB.]); with anti, adhas, avas, puras; with upari, 'above' (common later); and with antar.

## Conjunctions.

1131. The conjunctions, also, as a distinct class of words, are almost wanting.

The combination of clauses is in Sanskrit in general of a very simple character; much of what in other Indo-European languages is effected by subordinating conjunctions is here managed by means of composition of words, by the use of the gerunds (994), and of *iti* (1102 a), and so on.

1132. The relative derivative adverbs, already given (1098 ff.), may properly be regarded as conjunctions; and a few other particles of kindred value, as *ced* and *ned* (1111a).

1133. Purely of conjunctive value are  $\exists ca$ , 'and', and  $\exists v\bar{a}$ , 'or' (both toneless, and never having the first place in a sentence or clause).

Of copulative value, along with ca, is in the older language especially utá (later it becomes a particle of more indefinite use); and *api*, tatas, tathā, kim ca, with other particles and combinations of particles, are used often as connectives of clauses.

Adversative is  $t\dot{u}$ , 'but' (rare in the older language); also, less strongly, u (toneless).

Of illative value is  $\lambda i$ , 'for' (originally, and in great part at every period, asseverative only): compare above, 1122 a.

To ca (as well as to its compound céd) belongs occasionally the meaning 'if'.

It is needless to enter into detail with regard to those uses which may be not less properly, or more properly, called conjunctive than adverbial, of the particles already given, under the head of Adverbs.

# Interjections.

1134. The utterances which may be classed as interjections are. as in other languages, in part voice-gestures,

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in part onomatopœias, and in part mutilations and corruptions of other parts of speech.

**1185.** a. Of the class of voice-gestures are, for example:  $\bar{a}$ ,  $h\bar{a}$ ,  $h\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ , ahaha, he,  $h\bar{a}i$  (AV.), ayi, aye, hayé (RV.), aho, bái (RV.), bata (RV.) or vata, and (probably) hiruk and hurúk (RV.).

**b.** Onomatopoetic or imitative utterances are, for example (in the older language):  $cicc\dot{a}$ , 'whiz' (of an arrow: RV.); kikirá (palpitation: RV.); bál and phát (phás?) or phál, 'splash' (AV.); bhúk, 'bow-wow' (AV.); çál, 'pat' (AV.);  $\bar{a}s$ ,  $h\bar{s}s$ , as, and has (PB.); and see the words already quoted in composition with the roots  $k_T$  and  $bh\bar{u}$ , above, 1091.

c. Nouns and adjectives which have assumed an interjectional character are, for example: bhos (for the vocative bhavas, **456**); are or re (voc. of ari, 'enemy'); dhik, 'alas!' (may be mere voice-gesture, but perhaps related with  $\gamma$  dih); kastam, 'woe is me!' distyā, 'thank heaven!' svasti, 'hail!' susthu, sādhu, 'good, excellent!' None of these are Vedic in interjectional use.

# CHAPTER XVII.

### DERIVATION OF DECLINABLE STEMS.

1136. THE formation from roots of conjugable stems namely, tense-stems, mode-stems, and stems of secondary conjugation (not essentially different from one another, nor, it is believed, ultimately from the formation of declined stems) was most conveniently treated above, in the chapters devoted to the verb. Likewise the formation of adverbs by derivation (not essentially different from case-formation), in the chapter devoted to particles. And the formation of those declinable stems namely, of comparison, and of infinitives and participles — which attach themselves most closely to the systems of inflection, has also been more or less fully exhibited. But the extensive and intricate subject of the formation of the great body of declinable stems was best reserved for a special chapter.

Of course, only a brief and compendious exhibition of the subject can be attempted within the here necessary limits: no exhaustive tracing out of the formative elements of every period; still less, a complete statement of the varied uses of each element; least of all, a discussion of origins; but enough to help the student in that analysis of words which must form a part of his labor from the outset, giving a general outline of the field, and preparing for more penetrating investigation.

The material from accented texts, and especially the Vedic material, will be had especially in view (nothing that is Vedic being intentionally left unconsidered); and the examples given will be, so far as is possible, words found in such texts with their accent marked. No word not thus vouched for will be accented unless the fact is specifically pointed out.

1137. The roots themselves, both verbal and pronominal, are used in their bare form, or without any added suffix. as declinable stems.

As to this use of verbal roots, see below, 1147.

The pronominal roots, so-called, are essentially declinable; and hence, in their further treatment in derivation, they are in accordance with other declinable stems, and not with verbal roots.

1138. Apart from this, every such stem is made by a suffix. And these suffixes fall into two general classes:

A. Primary suffixes, or those which are added directly to roots;

B. Secondary suffixes, or those which are added to derivative stems (also to pronominal roots, as just pointed out, and sometimes to particles).

The division of primary suffixes nearly corresponds to the krt (more regular) and unudi (less regular) suffixes of the Hindu grammarians; the secondary, to their taddhita-suffixes.

1139. But this distinction, though one of high value, theoretically and practically, is not absolute. Thus:

a. Suffixes come to have the aspect and the use of primary which really contain a secondary element — that is to say, the earliest words exhibiting them were made by addition of secondary suffixes to words already derivative.

Sundry examples of this will be pointed out below: thus, the gerundival suffixes, tavya, aniya, etc., the suffixes uka and aka, tra, and others. This origin is probable for more cases than admit of demonstration; and it is possible for others which show no distinct signs of composition.

b. Less often, a suffix of primary use passes over in part into secondary, through the medium of use with denominative "roots" or otherwise: examples are yu, iman, iyas and istha.

1140. Moreover, primary suffixes are added not only

to original roots, but, generally with equal freedom, to elements which have come to wear in the language the aspect of such, by being made the basis of primary conjugation and even, to a certain extent, to the bases of secondary conjugation, the conjugation-stems, and the bases of tenseinflection, the tense-stems.

a. The most conspicuous examples of this are the participles, present and future and perfect, which are made alike from tense and conjugationstems of every form. The infinitives (968 ff.) attach themselves only in sporadic instances to tense-stems, and even from conjugation-stems are made but sparingly earlier; and the same is true of the gerundives.

b. General adjectives and nouns are somewhat widely made from conjugation-stems, especially from the base of causative conjugation: see below the suffixes a,  $\bar{a}$ , as, ani, u, ti, tr, tnu, snu.

c. From tense-stems, the examples are far fewer, but not unknown: thus, from present-stems, occasional derivatives in a (1148.3b),  $\bar{a}$  (1149), u (1178 e, g, h), ta (1176 e), tu (1161 c), tra (1185 d), ru (1192), vin (or in: 1232, end); from stems in a s apparently of a oristic character (besides infinitives and gerundives), occasional derivatives in a (1148.3b), ana (1150.2b), ani (1159 b), an (1160 a), ana (1175), as (1151.1b), isita (1184), u (1178 e), us (1154), tr (1182 c), in (1183).

1141. The primary suffixes are added also to roots as compounded with the verbal prefixes.

Whatever, namely, may have been originally and strictly the mode of production of the derivatives with prefixes, it is throughout the recorded life of the language as if the root and its prefix or prefixes constituted a unity, from which a derivative is formed in the same manner as from the simple root, with that modification of the radical meaning which appears also in the proper verbal forms as compounded with the same prefixes.

Not derivatives of every kind are thus made; but, in the main, those classes which have most of the verbal force, or which are most akin in value with infinitives and participles.

The occurrence of such derivatives with prefixes, and their accent, will be noted under each suffix below. They are chiefly (in nearly the order of their comparative frequency), besides root-stems, those in a. in ana, in ti, in tar and tra, and in in, ya, van and man, i and u, as, and a few others.

1142. The suffixes of both classes are sometimes joined to their primitives by a preceding union-vowel — that is to say, by one which wears that aspect, and, in our uncertainty as to its real origin, may most conveniently and safely be called by that name. The line between these vowels and such as deserve to be ranked as of organic suffixal character cannot be sharply drawn.

Each of the two great classes will now be taken up by itself, for more particular consideration.

#### A. Primary Derivatives.

1143. Form of root. The form of root to which a primary suffix is added is liable to more or less variation. Thus:

**a.** By far the most frequent is a strengthening change, by guna or vrddhi-increment. The former may occur under all circumstances (except, of course, where guna-change is in general forbidden: 235, 240): thus, véda from  $\gamma$  vid, móda from  $\gamma$  mud, várdha from  $\gamma$  vrdh: áyana from  $\gamma$ i, sávana from  $\gamma$ su, sárana from  $\gamma$ sr; and so on. But the latter is only allowed under such circumstances as leave long  $\bar{a}$  as the resulting vowel: that is, with non-final a, and with a final i or u-vowel and r, before a vowel: thus, nādá from  $\gamma$  nā, bhāvá from  $\gamma$ grbh or grabh, vāhá from  $\gamma$ vah, nāyá from  $\gamma$ nī, bhāvá from  $\gamma$ bhū, kārá from  $\gamma$ kr; such strengthening as would make vāida and māuda is entirely unknown in primary derivation.

No general rules can be given as to the occurrence of strengthening in derivation: it must be left to be pointed out for each suffix.

b. Other vowel changes are more sporadic, and will be noticed in detail below: thus, occasional abbreviation of a root, as in *ukti* from  $\gamma vac$ ; change of final r to *ir* and *ur*; the loss of final  $\bar{a}$ , or its conversion to an  $\P$ -vowel; and so on.

c. The reversion of a final palatal or h to a guttural has been already noticed (216). A final n or m is occasionally lost, as in formations already considered.

d. After a short final vowel is sometimes added a t: namely, where a root is used as stem without suffix (1147), and before a following y or v of van (1169), vara and varī (1171), yu once (1165a), and ya (1213).

The presence of t before these suffixes indicates an original secondary derivation from derivatives in ti and tu.

e. The root is sometimes reduplicated: rarely in the use without suffix: oftenest before *i*, *a*, *u*; in only a few cases each, also before other suffixes (ana, vana, van and varī, vani, vi, vit, ani, in, atu, tnu, ta, ti, tr, tra, ūka and īka, ma, ya).

1144. Accent. No general laws governing the place of the accent are to be recognized; each suffix must in this respect be considered by itself.

In connection with a very few suffixes is to be recognized a certain

degree of tendency to accent the root in case of a nomen actionis or infinitival derivative, and the ending in the case of a nomen agentis or participial derivative: see the suffixes a, ana, as, an, and man, below, where the examples are considered. Differences of accent in words made by the same suffix are also occasionally connected with differences of gender: see the suffixes as and man.

1145. Meaning. As regards their signification, the primary derivatives fall into two great classes, the one indicating the action expressed by the verbal root, the other the person or thing in which the action appears, the agent or actor — the latter, either substantively or adjectively. The one class is abstract, infinitival; the other is concrete, participial. All other meanings may be viewed as modifications or specializations of these two.

Even the words indicating recipience of action, the passive participles. are, as their use also as neuter or reflexive shows, only notably modified words of agency. The gerundives are, as was pointed out above (961), secondary derivatives, originally indicating only 'concerned with the action'.

1146. But these two classes, in the processes of formation, are not held sharply apart. There is hardly a suffix by which action-nouns are formed which does not also make agent-nouns or adjectives; although there are not a few by which are made only the latter. In treating them in detail below, we will first take up the suffixes by which derivatives of both classes are made, and then those forming only agent-nouns.

To follow an alphabetical arrangement, although in some respects more practically convenient, seems too artificial, and destructive of all natural connection. The Index will give what help is needed toward finding any particular suffix which is sought.

1147. Stems without suffix: Root-words. These words and their uses have been already pretty fully considered above (323, 348 ff., 383 ff., 400, 401).

a. They are used especially (in the later language, almost solely) as finals of compounds, and have both fundamental values, as action-nouns (frequently as infinitives: 971), and as agent-nouns and adjectives (often governing an accusative: 271e). As action-nouns, they are chiefly feminines (384: in many instances, however, they do not occur in situations that determine the gender).

**b.** In a small number of words, mostly of rare occurrence, the reduplicated root is used without suffix.

The Vedic cases are: with simple reduplication, sasyaid, cikft, sassest (irregular, for sussuit, didyú and didyút, juhú, and perhaps cícu; with in-

tensive reduplication, -není, jogú, yaviyúdh, vánivan (with the intensive instead of the usual radical accent). In dáridra is seen a transfer to the a-declension. Asūsú is probably to be understood as a compound, asu-sú.

c. If the root end in a short vowel, a t is regularly and usually added (383b).

Examples, and the exceptions found to occur, have been given at the place just quoted.

d. Words of this form in combination with verbal prefixes are very numerous. The accent rests (as in combination of the same with other preceding elements) on the root-stem.

e. In a single instance, *crútkarna* (RV.), 'of listening ears', a stem of this class occurs as prior member of a compound.

1148.  $\Xi$  a. With the suffix  $\Xi$  a is made a very large and heterogeneous body of derivatives, of various meaning and showing various treatment of the root: guna-strengthening, *vrddhi*-strengthening, retention unchanged, and reduplication.

In good part, they are classifiable under the two usual general heads; but in part they have been individualized into more special senses.

1. With guna-strengthening of the root (where that is possible: 235, 240). These are the great majority, being more than twice as numerous as all others together.

a. Many nomina actionis: as, cráma, 'weariness', gráha, 'seizure', áya, 'movement', véda, 'knowledge', háva, 'call', kródha, 'wrath', jósa, 'enjoyment', tára, 'crossing', sárga, 'emission'.

b. Many nomina agentis: as, kṣamā, 'patient', svajā, 'constrictor', hinvā, 'impelling', jīvā, 'living', meghā, 'cloud', codā, 'inciting', plavā, 'boat', sarā, 'brook', sarpā, 'serpent', arcā, 'radiant'.

c. Of the examples here given, those under a accent the radical syllable, and those under b the ending. And this is in a majority of cases the fact as regards the two classes of derivatives; so that, taken in connection with kindred facts as to other suffixes, it indicates such a difference of accent as a general tendency of the language. A few sporadic instances are met with of the same form having the one or the other value according to its accent: thus. ésa, 'haste', esá, 'hasting'; cása, 'order', cāsá, 'orderer' (other examples are kāma, cāka, çoka): compare a similar difference with other derivatives as, ana, an, man). But exceptions are numerous — thus, for example, jayá, javá, smará, action-nouns; cráva, mógha, hínsa, agent-nouns — and the subject calls for a much wider and deeper investigation than it has yet received, before the accentuation referred to can be set up as a law of the language in derivation.

2. With *vrddhi*-strengthening of the root — but only where

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5. Derivatives with this suffix from roots as compounded with the vertex prefixes are quite common in all the modes of formation in each, in proportion to the frequency of independent words, constituting, in fact, considerably the largest body of derivative stems with prefixes. They are of both classes as to meaning. The accent is, with few exceptions, on the ending — and that, without any reference to the value of the stem as action-noun or agent-noun

Examples are : emigamá, "assembly , nemeső, wirk', shládolf, 'emity', emikará, "assistance, udáná, "inspirating, propiorió", "respinse': - periori, wandering, samjapá, "victorione', relocitá, "wakeful, copia," rover-piou, udárá, inenting, elevated, utrudá "rousing armgerá, "swalloving', ädardiri, "trusing, adiacañkramá "elimbing"

The only definable class of exceptions in regard to accent appears to be that of the advertice generals in over above, 995, which are accented of the root-spheric. A very few other stems have the same tens: for sp-

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ample, utpáta, 'portent'; ācrēsa, 'plague'. A few others, mostly agent-nouns, have the accent on the prefix: for example, vydsa (i. e. vf-osa), 'burning', prátiveça, 'neighbor', ábhaga, 'sharing'; but also sárikūça, 'appearance'.

For the remaining compounds of these derivatives, with the inseparable prefixes and with other elements, see the next chapter. It may be merely mentioned here that such compounds are numerous, and that the  $\alpha$ -derivative has often an active participial value, and is frequently preceded by a caseform, oftenest the accusative.

Many words in the language appear to end with a suffix a, while yet they are referable to no root which can be otherwise demonstrated as such.

1149.  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$   $\overline{a}$ . This suffix has, for the most part, the subordinate office of making corresponding feminines (especially adjective) to masculines in  $\overline{\mathfrak{A}} a$  — in which use, of course, it might be open to question whether we should not regard it rather as an element of secondary character. It is comparatively little employed independently.

There are, however, a considerable number of feminine nouns in  $\bar{a}$  in the language to which no corresponding masculines exist; and many of them are distinctly traceable to roots. The latter are especially action-nouns, accented on the suffix: and such derivatives in  $\dot{a}$  form a distinct class, being made sometimes from simple roots, but especially, and at will, from conjugational stems, desiderative, causative, and denominative.

Examples from simple roots are:  $ic\dot{a}$ , 'lordship',  $kr\bar{i}d\dot{a}$ , 'play', jar $\dot{a}$ , 'old age', nind $\dot{a}$ , 'reproach'.

Examples from desiderative stems are very few in the oldest language, but common later: thus, jigīsá and bhikṣá (BV.); the latter and vīrtsá (AV.); bībhatsá (VS.); in Brāhmaņa language, pipāsá, bubhukṣá, mīmūnsá, çikṣá or çīkṣá, etc.

From causative stems, the only Vedic example is gamayá (compare the derivatives in -aya, above, 1148.3b); but the formation becomes common later, in the making-up of the periphrastic perfect (above, 1070ff.). The derivatives from present-stems — thus, vidá, edhá, juhavá, etc. — made for a similar office, have been mentioned in connection with this perfect (1073).

From denominative stems, the older instances are more numerous: for example, açvayá, sukratūyá, apasyá, uruşyá, asūyá, açanayá, jīvanasyá. Their y is not resolved into i.

1150. and . With this suffix (as with a) are formed many derivatives, of both the principal classes of meaning. and with not infrequent special

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usually guna-strengthening, but sometimes *vrddhi* instead; and in a few cases it remains unstrengthened. Derivatives of this formation are frequent from roots with prefixes, and also in composition with other elements.

The normal and greatly prevalent accent is upon the rootsyllable, without regard to the difference of meaning: but cases occur of accented final, and a few of accented penult (which last are possibly to be referred to another suffix of the same form but of a different origin).

The action-nouns are in general of the neuter gender. The feminine of adjectives is made either in  $\bar{a}$  or in  $\bar{i}$  (for details, see below). And a few feminine action-nouns in  $an\bar{a}$  and  $an\bar{i}$  occur, which are to be ranked as belonging to this suffix.

1. With strengthened and accented root-syllable. Under this head fall, as above indicated, the great mass of forms.

8. With guna-strengthening: examples of action-nouns are sádana, 'seat', ráksana, 'protection', dána, 'giving', cáyana, 'collection', védana, 'property', hávana, 'call', bhójana, 'enjoyment', kárana, 'deed', várdhana, 'increase'; of agent-nouns, tápana, 'burning', cétana, 'visible', códana, 'impelling'.

The derivatives  $d\dot{u}_{sana}$  and  $-m\dot{a}_{rjana}$  have the same irregular strengthening which appears in their present-systems (627, 1042 a), and other formations from the same roots.

b. With vyddhi-strengthening (only in such circumstances that  $\bar{a}$  remains as vowel of the radical syllable): examples (all that have been noted in the older language) are -cátana, náçana, mádana, -vácana, -vásana, -váhana, sádana, -spáçana, svádana, -áyana, -yávana, -srávana, -párana, várana.

c. From roots with prefixes, the derivatives of this formation are very numerous, being exceeded in frequency only by those made with the suffix a (above, 1148.5).' A few examples are:  $\bar{u}kramana$ , 'striding on', udyána, 'upgoing', nidhána, 'receptacle', pránana, 'expiration', vimócana, 'release' and 'releasing', samgrámana, 'assembly' and 'assembler', adhivikártana, 'cutting off', avaprabhránçana, 'falling away down'.

For other compounds of these derivatives, showing the same accent (and the same feminine stem), see the next chapter (below, 1272).

A few exceptions occur: vicaksaná, uparicayaná, and the feminines pramandaní and nirdahaní.

d. The adjectives of this formation, simple or compound, make their feminine usually in *i*: thus, códan*i*, péçan*i*, spáran*i*, jámbhan*i*; prajňán*i*, próksan*i*, samgráhan*i*, abhisávan*i*, vidháran*i* (cetaní is of doubtful meaning: below, 2a).

An adjective compound, however, having a noun in ana as final member, makes its feminine in  $\bar{a}$ : thus, sūpasarpaņā, 'of easy approach', sādvidhānā, 'of sextuple order', anapavācanā, 'not to be ordered away'.

2. The more irregular formations may be classed as follows:

a. With accent on the final: a small number of agent-nouns and adjectives, as karaná, 'active' (against kárana, ['act'), tvaraná, 'hasting', rocaná, 'shining', kroçaná, 'yelling', svapaná, 'sleepy', ksayaná, 'habitable'.

These, unlike the more regular class, make their feminines in  $\bar{a}$ : thus, toaraná, spandaná, etc. And a very few feminine action-nouns have the same form : jaraná, dyotaná (? RV. i. 123. 4), cvetaná (and compare kapaná, racaná).

Beside these may be mentioned a few feminines in ant, of more or less doubtful character: arsant, cetant (to cétana, tapant (to tápana), vrjant (with vrjána), hayant (with hayaná), rajani, tedant.

b. With accent on the penult: a very small number of adjectives: as dohána, 'milking', manána, 'considerate', mandána, 'rejoicing', saksána, 'overcoming', and perhaps vaksánā, 'carrying' (with aoristic s); and a still smaller number of neuter action-nouns: dansána, 'great deed', vrjána, 'enclosure, town', krpána, 'misery' (against krpaná, 'miserable'), with the masculine kirána, 'dust'.

The only noticed example of a feminine is in  $\bar{a}$ : turánā. And a few feminine nouns have the same form: as jaránā, bhandánā, kanyánā, vaksúņā, etc. (and compare the anomalous masc. name uçánā: **355 a**).

c. Without strengthening of the root are made a very small number of derivatives: namely (besides those already noted, krpána and krpaná, vrjána and vrjaní, kirána, turánā), bhurana, -súvana and bhúvana (compare the perfects of the same roots, savúva and babhúva, without the usual strengthening: 789 a): kírana, pírana, vrjana are doubtful.

d. A few isolated cases may be here mentioned: jāgaraņá and pálpūlana from reduplicated root-forms; sámana apparently from the prefix sam; anhūraņá apparently from anhurá; yóṣaņā, 'woman' (beside yóṣan, yóṣā, etc.), and pṛtanā, 'fight', are the only feminines with accented root-syllable.

1151. Eq. as. By this suffix are made (usually with guna-strengthening of the root-vowel) especially a large class of neuter nouns, mostly abstract (action-nouns), but sometimes assuming a concrete value; and also, in the older language, a few agent-nouns and adjectives, and a considerable number of infinitives.

The accent in words of the first class is on the root, and in the second on the ending; and in a few instances words of the two classes having the same form are distinguished by their accent; the infinitives have for the most part the accent on the suffix.

1. a. Examples of the first and principal class are: *ávas*, 'aid, favor', *tápas*, 'warmth', *práyas*, 'pleasure', *téjas*, 'splendor', *crátas*, 'fame', *dóhas*, 'milking', *káras*, 'deed', *práthas*, 'breadth', *cétas* and *mánas*, 'mind', *cákṣas*, 'eye', *sáras*, 'pond', *vácas*, 'speech'.

b. A few words of this class are of irregular formation: thus, without

strengthening of the root, júvas, 'quickness' (beside jávas), úras, 'breast'. mýdhas, 'contempt'; and círas, 'head', is to be compared; — with vyddhistrengthening, -vācas, vásas, váhas, -svādas, -hāyas; — perhaps with an aoristic s, hísas, 'missile'.

c. After final  $\bar{a}$  of a root is usually inserted y before the suffix (258): thus, *dhayas*, *gayas*.

But there are in the oldest language apparent remains of a formation in which as was added directly to radical  $\bar{a}$ : thus,  $bh\bar{a}s$  and  $-d\bar{a}s$  (often to be pronounced as two syllables),  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}s$ ,  $m\bar{a}s$ ; and -jas and -dhas and -das, from the roots  $j\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$  and  $d\bar{a}$  (Benfey, Abh. Gött. Ges. xxiii., 1878).

2. a. The instances in which an agent-noun is differentiated by its accent from an action-noun are:  $\delta pas$ , 'work', and  $ap \Delta s$ , 'active';  $y \Delta c a s$ , 'beauty', and  $yac \Delta s$ , 'beauteous';  $t \Delta r a s$ , 'quickness', and  $tar \Delta s$  (SV., once), 'quick';  $d \Delta v a s$ , 'worship', and  $d w \Delta s$ , 'lively'(?);  $m \Delta h a s$ , 'greatness', and mak $\Delta s$ , 'great'; between  $r \Delta k s a s$ , n., and  $r a k s \Delta s$ , m., both meaning 'demon', and between  $ty \Delta j a s$ , n., 'abandonment'(?), and  $ty a j \Delta s$ , m., 'descendant' (?), the antithesis is much less clear.

b. Adjectives in ás without corresponding abstracts are: tavás, 'strong', vedhás, 'pious', probably āhanás, 'heady'; and a few other words of isolated occurence, as veçás, dhvarás. From a denominative stem is made mrgayás, 'wild animal' (RV., once).

c. But there are also a very few cases of abstract nouns, not neuter, accented on the ending: thus, *jarás*, 'old age', *bhiyás*, 'fear'; and doubtless also *havás*, 'call', and *tvesás*, 'impulse'. The feminine *usás*, 'dawn', might belong either here or under the last preceding head.

d. Apparently containing a suffix as are the noun upás, 'lap', and certain proper names: *ängiras*, nodhás, bhalānás, arcanānás. The feminine apsarás, 'nymph', is of doubtful derivation.

The irregular formation of some of the words of this division will be noticed, without special remark.

3. The infinitives made by the suffix as have been explained above (973): they show various treatment of the root, and various accent (which last may perhaps mark a difference of gender, like that between sáhas and jarás).

4. The formation of derivatives in as from roots compounded with prefixes is very restricted — if, indeed, it is to be admitted at all. No infinitive in as occurs with a prefix; nor any action-noun; and the adjective combinations are in some instances evidently, and in most others apparently, possessive compounds of the noun with the prefix used adjectively: the most probable exceptions are *-nyokas* and *vispardhas*. As in these examples, the accent is always on the prefix.

In connection with this, the most common and important suffix ending in s, may be best treated the others, kindred in office and possibly also in origin, which end in the same sibilant. 1152. तम् tas, नम् nas, सम् sas. With these suffixes are made an extremely small number of action-nouns. Thus:

a. With tas are made rétas, 'seed', and srótas, 'stream'.

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b. With nas are made *ápnas*, 'acquisition', *árṇas*, 'wave', -bharṇas, 'offering', *rɛkṣṇas*, 'riches'; and in *dráviṇas*, 'wealth', and *párīṇas*, 'fulness', is apparently to be seen the same suffix, with prefixed elements having the present value of union-vowels. Probably the same is true of *dámūnas*, 'house-friend'.

c. With sas is perhaps made vapsas, 'beauty'(?); and tarūsas may be mentioned with it (rather tarus-a?).

1153. 3H is. With the suffix is is formed a small number (about a dozen) of nouns.

They are in part nouns of action, but most are used concretely. The radical syllable has the guna-strengthening, and the accent is on the suffix (except in *jyótis*, 'light', *vyáthis* (?), and *ámis*, 'raw meat'). Examples are: arcis, rocis, and *çocis*, 'light', *havis*, 'oblation', *vartis*, 'track'.

The forms tuvis- and surabhis- appear inorganically for tuvi and surabhi in a few compounds or derivatives.

1154. 3H us. With this suffix are made a few words, of various meaning, root-form, and accent.

They are words signifying both action and agent. A few have both meanings, without difference of accent: thus,  $t \dot{a} p u s$ , 'heat' and 'hot';  $\dot{a} r u s$ , 'wound' and 'sore';  $c \dot{a} k s u s$ , 'brightness' and 'seeing, eye';  $v \dot{a} p u s$ , 'wonderful' and 'wonder'. The nouns are mostly neuter, and accented on the root-syllable; exceptions are: in regard to accent, janús, 'birth'; in regard to gender, mánus, 'man', and náhus, proper name. Of adjectives, are accented on the ending jayús, vanús, vidús (which alone shows an unstrengthened root), and daksús, 'burning' (which appears to attach itself to the aorist-stem).

1155.  $\xi$  *i*. With this suffix are formed a considerable body of derivatives, of all genders: adjectives and masculine agent-nouns, feminine abstracts, and a few neuters. They show a various form of the root: strong, weak, and reduplicated. Their accent is also various.

Many words in i have meanings much specialized; and many (including most of the neuters) are hardly to be connected with any root elsewhere demonstrable.

1. The feminine action-nouns are of very various form: thus, with weak root-form, rúci, 'brightness', triși, 'sheen'; krși, 'ploughing', nrti, Especially, from consonant-stems in general; — from stems in  $\tau$  (or ar): **376 a**; — from some stems in u: **344**; — from many stems in a (for details, see the various suffixes ending in a): — stems in i very rarely have corresponding feminines in i: an example is  $k_{f}mi$  (masc.  $k_{f}mi$ ).

In the oldest language, a few masculines also are made in final i: they have been noticed, and their inflection described, above (355 ff.).

1157.  $\overrightarrow{Irt}$  ti. This suffix forms a large class of frequently used feminine nouns of action; and also a few agent-nouns (masculine) and adjectives. The root has in general the same form as before the suffix  $\overrightarrow{rt}$  to of the passive participle (952 ff.) — that is to say, a weak, and often a weakened or abbreviated, form.

The accent ought, in analogy with that of the participle, to rest always upon the suffix; and it does so in the (small) majority of words quotable from accented texts; but the exceptions are numerous. In the few words used as infinitives (975), the accent is on the suffix only.

1. a. Examples of the normal formation are:  $r\bar{a}tf$ , 'gift', itf, 'progress',  $r\bar{a}tf$ , 'flow', stutf, 'praise',  $bh\bar{a}tf$ , 'prosperity',  $bh\bar{r}tf$ , 'bearing', caktf, 'power',  $k\bar{n}rff$ , 'fame',  $p\bar{u}rtf$ , 'bestowal', matf, 'thought',  $p\bar{t}tf$ , 'drink' ( $\gamma p\bar{a}$ ; pple  $p\bar{t}a$ ),  $dh\bar{a}utf$ , 'stream' ( $\gamma dh\bar{a}v$ ; pple  $dh\bar{a}uta$ ); — and, with accented root, gati, 'motion',  $c\bar{a}nti$ , 'repose', dti, 'division' ( $\gamma d\bar{a}$ ; pple  $dit\bar{a}$ ),  $t\bar{r}pti$ , 'satisfaction', fefi, 'offering' ( $\gamma vaj$ : pple  $ist\bar{a}$ ), -ukti, 'speech' ( $\gamma vac$ : pple  $ukt\bar{a}$ ),  $v\bar{r}ddhi$ , 'increase'.

b. The roots which form their participle in *ita* (956) do not have the *i* also before ti: thus, only gúpti, -drpti (but AV. has once úditi, beside uditá, from  $\sqrt{cad}$ ). A few roots having their participle in *na* instead of *ta* (957), form the abstract noun also in *ni* (below, 1158). And from the roots *tan* and *ran* occur tânti and rânti, beside the more regular *tati* and râti; also âhanti (once, VS.) beside âhati. From roots having the form  $d\bar{a}$ , the derivative in composition is sometimes -tti (for  $d\bar{a}ti$  with loss of radical vowel: compare the participle-form -tta, above, 955 c): thus, *niravatti* (K.), *vâsutti*, *bhâgatti*, *maghâtti* (all RV.).

c. A few derivatives are made from reduplicated roots; their accent is various: thus, carkrtf, didhiti and -diditi, jfgarti, and perhaps the proper name yayáti.

d. Derivatives from roots with prefixes are numerous, and have (as in the case of the participles in ta, and the action-nouns in tu) the accent on the prefix: examples are *ánumati*, abhiti, *áhuti*, *nírṛti*, *vyàpti*, *sángati*. The only exceptions noticed are *āsaktí* and *āsutí*.

In other combinations than with prefixes, the accentuation is in general the same: see the next chapter.

2. The adjectives and agent-nouns - which, as masculines, are to be

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'dance', yudh', 'fighting'; — with guņa-strengthening (where possible). rópi, 'pain', rándhi, 'subjection', cocí, 'heat', vaní and saní, 'gain'; — with vrddhistrengthening, gráhi, 'seizure', dhráji, 'course',  $\bar{u}_{j\ell}$ , 'race'; from  $\sqrt{du_j}$  comes dúși (compare dușayati, 1042 a). The variety of accent, which seems reducible to no rule, is illustrated by the examples given.

The few infinitively used words of this formation (above, 975) have a weak root-form, with accent on the ending.

2. The adjectives and masculine agent-nouns exhibit the same variety. Thus:

a. With unstrengthened root: cúci, 'bright', bhŕmi, 'lively' (γbhram), gfbhi, 'container'.

b. With strengthened root (or root incapable of guna-change): dri, 'enemy', máhi, 'great', arcf, 'beam', granthf, 'knot', krādi, 'playing'; and some words, of obscure connections, show an apparent vrddhi-increment: thus, drāpf, 'mantle', rācf, 'heap', pānf, 'hand', etc.

c. With reduplicated root. This is in the older language a considerable class, of quite various form. Thus: with weak or abbreviated root, edivi, jághri ( $\gamma$ ghar), pápri, sásri, -mamri, babhrí, vavrí, jágmi, jághmi, sásni, sásvi, -cievi; and, with displacement of final  $\bar{a}$  (or its weakening to the semblance of the suffix), dadí, papí, yayí (with a case or two from yayí), -jajñi, dádhi; — from the ur-form of roots in changeable r, jágmri, táturi, pápuri; — with simple reduplication, yáyudhi, vívici; — with strengthened reduplication, -cūcali, tátrpi, dádhrsi, vávahi, sūsahí, tátuji and tūtují, yáyuvi, yúyudhí; and jarbhári. And karkarí, 'lute', and dundubhí, 'drum', have the aspect of belonging to the same class, but are probably onomatopoetic. The accent, it will be noticed, is most often on the reduplication, but not seldom elsewhere (only once on the root).

It was noticed above (271 f) that these reduplicated derivatives in *i* especially often take an object in the accusative, like a present participle.

d. Formations in i from the root compounded with prefixes are not at all numerous. They are accented usually on the suffix. Examples are: abhidrohf, āyajf, vyānacf, nijaghnf, parādadf, visāsahf; but also ājāni, āmúri, vívavri.

As compounded with other preceding words, the adjectives or agentnouns in *i* are not rare, and are regularly accented on the root: see the next chapter, 1276.

e. From  $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$  comes a derivative -dhi, forming many masculine compounds, with the value both of an abstract and a concrete: thus, with prefixes, antardhi, uddhi, nidhi, paridhi, etc. Opinions are divided as to whether it is to be regarded as formed with the suffix *i*, displacing the radical  $\bar{a}$ , or with weakening of  $\bar{u}$  to *i*.

3. Neuter neuns in *i* are few, and of obscure derivation: examples are *ákşi*, 'eye', *ásthi*, 'bone', *dádhi*, 'curds', etc.

1156.  $\xi \bar{\imath}$ . The suffix  $\xi \bar{\imath}$ , like  $\Re \bar{a}$  (above, 1149), has in general the office of making a feminine from a masculine stem. Thus:

Especially, from consonant-stems in general; — from stems in r (or ar): **376a**; — from some stems in u: **344**; — from many stems in a (for details, see the various suffixes ending in a): — stems in i very rarely have corresponding feminines in  $\bar{i}$ : an example is krml (mac. krml).

In the oldest language, a few masculines also are made in final  $\tilde{\imath}$ : they have been noticed, and their inflection described, above (**355** ff.).

1157.  $\overrightarrow{[n]}$  ti. This suffix forms a large class of frequently used feminine nouns of action; and also a few agent-nouns (masculine) and adjectives. The root has in general the same form as before the suffix  $\overrightarrow{[n]}$  ta of the passive participle (952 ff.) — that is to say, a weak, and often a weakened or abbreviated, form.

The accent ought, in analogy with that of the participle, to rest always upon the suffix: and it does so in the (small) majority of words quotable from accented texts; but the exceptions are numerous. In the few words used as infinitives (975), the accent is on the suffix only.

1. a. Examples of the normal formation are:  $r\bar{u}tf$ . 'gift', *itf*, 'progress',  $r\bar{u}tf$ . 'flow', stuff, 'praise', bhūtf. 'prosperity', bhựtf, 'bearing', çaktf. 'power', kārtf, 'fame', pūrtf. 'bestowal', matf. 'thought', pītf, 'drink' ' $\gamma p\bar{a}$ ; pple pīts),  $dh\bar{a}utf$ , 'stream' ' $\gamma'dh\bar{a}v$ ; pple  $dh\bar{a}uta_i$ ; — and, with accented root, gátt, 'motion', cânti. 'repose', díti, 'division' ( $\gamma'd\bar{a}$ ; pple dtf, *trpti*, 'satisfaction', *frți*, 'offering' ' $\gamma yaj$ : pple *istá*. -ukti, 'speech' ' $\gamma'vac$ : pple uktá, výddhi, 'increase'.

b. The roots which form their participle in its (956, 4) not have the i also before i: thus, only glipti. -depti (but AV. has suce liditi, baside uslitä, from  $\gamma$ -ad. A few roots having their participle in na instead of tu (957, form the abstract noun also in ni below, 1156. And from the roots tan and ran occur tânti and rânti, beside the more regular tati and râti; also âhenti (once, VS., beside âhati. From roots having the form dã, the derivative in composition is sometimes -tti for dãti with loss of radical vowel: compare the participle-form -tta, above. 855 e.: thus, ninewatti (K., vásutti, bhápatti, maghátti ali  $KV_{c.}$ 

c. A few derivatives are made from reduplicated roots; their scenas is various: thus, carbyti, didhiti and -diditi. figure. and perhaps the proper name popula.

d. Derivatives from roots with prefixes are numerous, and have its in the case of the participles in its, and the action-mounts in in, the access on the prefix examples are dominate, abbits, disate, north, sympth, obligati. The only exceptions noticed are doubt and doubt.

In other conducations than with predices, the scouts-stion is in general the same : see the next chapter.

2. The adjustments and agend-ansate - which as manufilings, and to be

connected with these instead of with the feminine abstracts — are very few: thus,  $p \dot{u} t i$ , 'putrid',  $v \dot{a} s t i$ , 'eager',  $dh \dot{u} t i$ , 'shaker',  $j \bar{n} \ddot{a} t f$ , 'relative', p a t t f, 'footman'; and a few others, of more or less dubious character. The accent is various, as in the other class.

3. A few words show the same suffix *ti* preceded by a vowel, in which no organic character seems recognizable, and which may therefore pass for a "union-vowel". One, *úditi*, has been quoted above; another with *i* is sániti (RV., once); and *snihitī* and *snéhitī*, notwithstanding their long final, may be mentioned with them. With ati are made a few, variously accented: thus, the action-nouns anhatf, drçatf, vasatf 'nest', ramáti, vratáti, amáti and ámati, -dhrajati; and the agent-words aratf, khalatf, vrkáti, rámati. With *iti*, fjīti and dábhīti. In the Brāhmanas appear occasional derivatives from conjugational stems, like jánayati (TS.) and  $\bar{a}gamayiti$  (K. xxviii. 6). The feminine yuvatf, 'young (adj.), maiden', is of isolated character.

4. In some of the words instanced in the last paragraph, ti is perhaps applied as a secondary suffix. A kindred character belongs to it in the numeral derivatives from pronominal roots, káti, táti, yáti, and from numerals, as vincatí, sasif, etc.; with pañktí (from páñca); and in addhātí, from the particle addhá.

1158.  $\overrightarrow{\sqcap}$  *ni*. This suffix agrees in general in its uses and in the form of its derivatives with the preceding; but it makes a much smaller number of words, among which the feminine abstracts are a minority.

1. As was noticed above (1157.1b), a few verbs (ending in vowels) making their passive participle in na instead of ta make their action-noun in ni instead of ti. From the Veda are quotable only  $-jy\bar{a}ni$ , 'injury', and  $j\bar{u}rni$ , 'heat'; later occur glūni,  $j\bar{x}rni$ , and others. Certain other feminine nouns of concrete meaning occur: thus,  $j\dot{a}ni$ , 'woman', etc.

2. Examples of words of the other class are: váhni, 'carrying', túrni, 'hasty', bhúrni, 'excited', prení, 'loving', vrení and vreni, 'virile'.

In preni, yóni, meni, créni, cróni is seen a strengthening of the root, such as does not appear among the derivatives in *ti*.

Derivatives in ni from roots with prefixes do not appear to occur.

In the words ending in *ani*, the *a* has probably the same value with that of *ati* (above, 1157.3); but *ani* has gained a more independent status, and may be best treated as a separate suffix.

1159. শ্বনি ani. The words made by this suffix have the same double value with those made by the preceding ones. Their accent is various. Thus:

**a.** Feminine action-nouns, sometimes with concreted meaning: as, isáni, 'impulse', caráni, 'injury'. dyotaní, 'brightness', ksipaní, 'blow', acáni, 'missile', vartaní, 'track', ájani  $(\bar{a}$ -ájani : the only example with prefix', 'goad'.

b. Adjectives and other agent-words are such as caráni, 'movable'. caksáni, 'enlightener', vaksáni, 'strengthener'. From a reduplicated rootform comes -poptani. From desiderative stems are made ruruksáni, sisāsáni, and (with prefix) a-cucuksani. And a small number of words appear to attach themselves to an s-aorist stem: thus, parsáni, saksáni, carsaní.

3. It is questionable whether the infinitives in simi (978) are to be put here, as accusatives of a formation in ani, or under the next suffix, as locatives of a formation in an, from roots and stems increased by an aoristic s.

1160. अन् an. Not many words appear to be made with a suffix of this form, and of these still fewer are plainly to be connected with roots. Certain rare neuters (along with the doubtful infinitives) are nouns of action; the rest are masculine and neuter agent-nouns. The accent is various.

a. The infinitives which admit of being referred to this suffix, as locative cases, are those in sani, of which the sibilant appears to be the final of a tense-stem. They are all given above (978).

b. The other action-nouns in an are mahan, 'greatness', manhan (?), 'liberality', rāján, 'authority' (RV., once: compare rájan; the accent-relation is the reverse of the usual one), and gambhan, 'depth' (VS., once),

c. Examples of agent-nouns are : masc. taksan, 'carpenter', rajan, 'king', vrsan, virile, bull', uksán, 'ox'; neut. udán, 'water', cáksan, 'eye': - with prefixes, pratidivan, 'antegonist at play' (átidivan, AV., is perhaps a bad reading), vibhván, 'superior'.

d. A few stems in an, running parallel with those in other suffixes and filling out their declension, were mentioned above (429 ff.).

1161. J tu. The great mass of the words of this formation are the infinitives — accusatives in the later language, in the earlier likewise datives and ablative-genitives: see above, 970b, 972. But a few are also used independently, as action-nouns or with concreted meaning; and an extremely small number, of somewhat questionable character, appear to have the value of agent-words. They are of all genders, but chiefly masculine. The root has the gunastrengthening.

The infinitive words are accented on the radical syllable when simple, and most of the others have the same accent; but a few have the tone on the ending.

a. Examples are: of the regular formation, masc., gantu, 'way', dhatu, 'element', mantu, 'counsel'; fem. vastu, 'morning'; neut. vastu, 'abode'; ---Whitney, Grammar.

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with accent on the ending, jantú, 'being', gātú, 'way' and 'song', hetú, 'cause', ketú, 'banner' (all masc.); — with unstrengthened root, rtú, 'season', pitú, 'drink', sútu, 'birth'; with vrddhi-strengthening, vástu (above).

b. The infinitives in tu have (972) often the union-vowel *i* before the suffix, and this in a few cases is lengthened to  $\bar{\iota}$ . In other use occur also -*iárītu* and -*dhárītu* (both with *dus*); *turphárītu* seems of the same formation, but is obscure.

The infinitives, when made from roots with prefixes, have (as was pointed out above, 972) the accent on the prefix. But the same words, when used (not infinitivally) in further combination (with su and dus), retain the radical accent which belongs to the simple word: thus, duratystus, durniyantu, dusparihántu, supratu.

c. In a few instances, the suffix tu appears to be added to a tense- or conjugation-stem in a: thus, edhatú and vahatú; tanyatú and tapyatú; and sisāeátu. The accent of the last is paralleled only by that of  $j\bar{v}o\dot{t}u$ , 'life', which is further exceptional in showing a long  $\bar{a}$ ; it is used sometimes in the manner of an infinitive.

1162.  $\exists nu$ . This suffix forms a comparatively small body of words, generally masculine, and having both the abstract and the concrete value.

The accent is usually on the ending, and the root unstrengthened.

Examples are: bhānú, 'light' (later 'sun'), vagnú, 'sound', sūnú, 'sou', dánu (with irregular accent), m. 'demon', n. 'drop, dew'; dhenú, f., 'cow'; — grdhnú, 'hasty', dhrenú, 'bold'.

This also (like tw), appears sometimes with a prefixed a: thus, krandanú and nadanú, 'roaring', nabhanú (and -nú, f.), 'fountain', vibhañjanú (only instance with prefix), 'breaking to pieces'; and perhaps kr;ánu belongs here.

1163. If tha. The words made with this suffix are almost without exception action-nouns (though some have assumed a concrete value). They are of all genders. The root is of a weak (or even weakened) form, and the accent usually on the suffix.

**a.** Examples are: masc. *bhythå*, 'offering', *-kytha*, 'making', *-itha*, 'going'; neut. ukthá, 'saying', nīthá, 'song', tīrthá, 'ford'; fem. (with  $\bar{a}$ ) gắthā, 'song', nīthā, 'way'. Radical  $\bar{a}$  is weakened to  $\bar{\imath}$  in *-gīthá* and *-pīthá*. Final *m* or *n* is lost in *-gathá* and *hátha* (as sometimes in the verbal inflection of the same roots: 637, 834 b).

A few examples of combination with prefixes occur, with accent on the final: thus, nirrthia, 'destruction', samgathia, 'union', etc.

b. Still more common in the older language is a form of this suffix to which has become prefixed an d, which is probably of thematic origin, though

become a union-vowel. Thus: masc. carátha, 'mobility', yajátha, 'offering', ravátha, 'cry', çapátha, 'curse', stavátha, 'praise'; neut. ucátha, 'speech', vidátha, 'ordering'. Before this, a root has sometimes guma: thus, çayátha, 'couch', *ivesátha*, 'vehemence'. With a prefix, the accent is thrown forward upon the final: thus, *āvasathá*, 'abode', *pravasathá*, 'absence'; *prānátha*, 'breath', is treated as if prān were an integral root.

c. Isolated combinations of tha with other preceding vowels occur: thus, várūtha, 'protection', with another doubtful case or two; and matútha (y'man?).

1164.  $\underline{a}$  thu. This suffix has an  $\overline{a}$   $\dot{a}$  attached to it (like  $\underline{a}$  tha, above), and, in the very few derivatives which it makes, appears only as  $\overline{a}$   $\underline{a}$   $\dot{a}$  thu.

The only Vedic examples are ejáthu, 'quaking', vepáthu, 'trambling', stanáthu, 'roaring'. Later cases are nandáthu (TS.), vamathu, cvayathu, etc.

1165. g yu. With this suffix are made a very few nouns, both of agent and of action, with unstrengthened root and various accent. Thus:

a. Abstracts (masc.) are many $\hat{u}$ , 'wrath', myty $\hat{u}$ , 'death' (with t added to the short final of the root).

b. Adjectives etc. are bhujyú, 'pliable', cundhyú, 'pure'; ydjyu, 'ptous', sáhyu, 'strong', dásyu, 'enemy', and one or two more.

For other derivatives ending in yu, see the suffix u, below, 1178 g, h.

1166.  $\neg ma$ . The action-nouns made by this suffix are almost all masculine; and they are of various root-form and accent, as are also the agent-nouns and adjectives.

a. Examples of the former class are: ajmá, 'course', gharmá, 'heat'; éma, 'progress', bháma, 'brightness', sárma, 'flow', stóma, 'song of praise'.

b. Examples of the latter class are: tigmá, 'sharp', bhīmá, 'terrible', cagmá, 'mighty'; idhmá, 'fuel', yudhmá, 'warrior'. A single instance from a reduplicated root is tūtumá, 'powerful'.

1167. H mi. A very small number of nouns, masculine and feminine, formed with mi, may be conveniently noticed here.

Thus, from r-roots, ūrmf, 'wave', -kūrmi, 'action', sūrmi, f., 'tube'; from others, jāmf (?), 'relation', bhúmi or bhúmī, f., 'earth', lakymi, 'sign'; also probably raçmi, 'line, ray'.

1168. मन् man. The derivatives made with this suffix are almost only action-nouns. The great majority of them are neuter, and accented on the root-syllable; a much smaller number are masculine, and accented on the suffix. The few agent-words are, if nouns, masculine, and have the

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latter accent: in several instances, a neuter and a masculine, of the one and the other value and accent, stand side by side. The root has in general the *guna*-strengthening.

1. a. Examples of regularly formed neuters are: kárman, 'action', jánman, 'birth', náman, 'name', vártman, 'track', véçman, 'dwelling', hóman, 'sacrifice', -dyótman, 'splendor'.

b. Examples of masculine abstracts are: ojmán, 'strength', jemán, 'conquest', svädmán, 'sweetness'.

c. Corresponding neuter action-nouns and masculine agent-nouns are: bråhman, 'worship', and brahmán, 'priest'; dáman, 'gift', and dāmán, 'giver'; dhárman, 'rule', and dharmán, 'orderer'; sádman, 'seat', and sadmán, 'sitter'. Very few other agent-nouns occur; and all, except brahmán, are of rare occurrence.

On the other hand, vargman and svādman (and variman) have the difference of gender and accent without a corresponding difference of meaning.

The noun deman, 'stone', though masculine, is accented on the radical syllable; and two or three other questionable cases of the same kind occur.

The derivatives in man used as infinitives (974) have for the most part the accent of neuters: the only exception is vidmane.

d. A few words, of either class, have an irregular root-form: thus, bháman 'earth', syúman; bhūmán 'abundance', sīmán, bhujmán, vidmán; and kársman, bhárman, cákman.

e. Derivatives in man from roots with prefixes are not numerous. They are usually accented on the prefix, whether action-nouns or adjectives: thus, prábharman, 'forthbringing', práyūman, 'departure'; ánuvartman, 'following after': the exceptions, vijáman, prativartmán, visarmán, are perhaps of possessive formation.

2. The same suffix, though only with its abstract-making value, has in a number of cases before it a union-vowel, i or  $\bar{i}$ ; and *imán* comes to be used as a secondary suffix, forming abstract nouns (masculine) from a certain number of adjectives.

a. The neuters in *iman* and *īman* are all primary formations, belonging to the older language: thus, *jániman* and váriman (beside varimán, as noticed above); and dárīman, dhárīman, párīman (and páreman, SV., once), bhárīman, várīman, sárīman, stárīman, sávīman, and hávīman. Those in *īman* are hardly met with outside the Rig-Veda.

b. The masculines in *imán* are in the oldest language less frequent than the neuters just described: they are *jarimán*, *prathimán*, *mahimán*, *varimán* (beside the equivalent váriman and várīman), varsimán (beside the equivalent vársman and varsmán), harimán, and drāghimán (VS.) beside drāghmán (RV.). Some of these, as well as of the derivatives in simple man, attach themselves in meaning, or in form also, to adjectives, to which they seem the accompanying abstracts: compare the similar treatment of the primary comparatives and superlatives (above, 468): such are pāpmán (to pāpá, pápīyas, etc.); drāghmán etc. (to dīrghá, drághīyas, etc.); váriman etc. (to urú, várīyas, etc.); práthiman (to prthú, práthistha); harimán (to hári or hárita); vársman etc. (to vársīyas etc.); svádman etc. (to svādú, svádīyas, etc.). Then in the Brāhmana language sre found further examples: thus, dhūmrimán (TS., K.), dradhiman (K.: to drāhá, drádhīyas, etc.), taruņiman (K.), lohitiman (KB.); and still later such as laghiman; while ksepiman (to ksiprá, ksipīyas, etc.) and krsņiman, and so on, are allowed by the grammarians.

1169.  $\exists \neg tan$ . By this suffix are made almost only agent-words, adjectives and nouns, the latter mostly masculines. The root is unstrengthened, and to a short final vowel is added a  $\neg t$  before the suffix. The accent is almost always on the root, both in the simple words and in their compounds.

The insertion of t is an indication that the words of this form are originally made by the addition of *an* to derivatives in u and tu; yet *van* has the present value of an integral suffix in the language, and must be treated as such.

1. a. Examples of the usual formation are: masc. yájvan, 'offering', drúhvan, 'harming', cákvan, 'capable', -ríkvan, 'leaving', -jíkvan, 'conquering', sútvan, 'pressing', krítvan, 'active', -gátvan (like -gat, -gatya), 'going', sátvan ( $\gamma$ san), 'warrior', árvan (only example with strengthened root), 'courser'; — neut. párvan, 'joint', dhánvan, 'bow'.

b. Examples from roots with prefixes (which are not rare) are: attivan, 'excelling', upahásvan, 'reviler', sambhrivan, 'collecting'; and probably vivásvan, 'shining': abhísatvan is a compound with governing preposition (1310).

For the compounds with other elements, which, except in special cases, have the same accent, see below, 1277.

c. The stem  $mu_{\bar{v}}vdn$ , 'robber' (RV., once), is the only one with a union-vowel, and is perhaps better regarded as a secondary derivative — of which a few are made with this suffix: see below, 1234.

d. From a reduplicated root are made rárāvan and cikitván (and possibly vivásvan).

2. The number of action-nouns made with the suffix van is extremely small: namely,  $d\bar{u}van$ , 'giving', and turvan, 'overcoming', both used as infinitives (974), and bhurvan, 'unrest' (?); likewise dhurvan, 'injury', also used as infinitive (unless this is rather dhurvan).

The feminines corresponding to adjectives in van are not made (apparently) directly from this suffix, but from vara, and end in vari; see below, 1171 b.

1170. বন vana, বনি vani, বনু vanu. The very few words made with these suffixes may best be noticed here, in co nection with ৰন্*van* (of which the others are probably secondary extensions).

a. With vana are made vagvaná, 'talkative', satvaná, 'warrior' (beside sátvan, above); and, from a reduplicated root, *cucukvaná*, 'shining'.

b. With vani are made from simple roots turváni, 'excelling', and bhurváni, 'restless' (compare turván and bhurván, just above); and, from reduplicated roots, cucukváni, 'shining', dadhriváni, 'daring', tuturváni, 'striving after', and jugurváni, 'praising': arharisváni is obscure.

c. With vanu is made only vagvanú, 'tone, noise'.

1171. at vara. With this suffix are made a few derivatives, of all genders, having for the most part the value of agent-nouns and adjectives.

Much more common are the feminine stems in an vari, which, from the earliest period, serve as the corresponding feminines to the masculine stems in an van.

a. A few masculine adjectives in vará occur, formally accordant (except in accent) with the feminines: thus, *itvará*, 'going', -advará, 'eating', -sadvará, 'sitting', *içvará*, 'ruler, lord'; and with them doubtless belongs vidvalá, 'knowing' (with *l* for r).

b. The feminines in varī accord in treatment of the root and in accent with the masculines in van to which they correspond: thus,  $y \dot{a} j var\bar{i}$ ,  $-j f var\bar{i}$ ,  $s f var\bar{i}$ ,  $-c \bar{i} var\bar{i}$ ,  $-y \bar{a} var\bar{i}$ , and so on (about twenty-five such formations in RV.); from a reduplicated root,  $-c c var\bar{i}$ .

c. A very small number of neuters occur, with accent on the root: thus, kárvara, 'deed', gáhvara, 'thicket'; and a feminine or two, with accent on the penult: urvárā, 'field', and urvárī, 'tow' (both of doubtful etymology).

We take up now the suffixes by which are made only stems having the value of agent-nouns and adjectives; beginning with a brief mention of the participial endings, which in general have been already sufficiently treated.

1172. मन् ant (or मन् at). The office of this suffix, in making present and future participles active, has been fully explained above, in connection with the various tense-stems and conjugation-stems (chaps. VIII.—XIV.), in combination with which alone it is employed (not directly with the root, unless this is also used as tense-stem).

With the same or a formally identical suffix are made from pronominal roots *iyant* and *kiyant* (517). And *ddvayant*, 'not double-tongued' (RV., once), appears to contain a similar form-

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ation from the numeral dvi — unless we are to assume a denominative verb-stem as intermediate.

Here may also be best mentioned the words made with the so-called suffix anta (fem.  $ant\bar{a}$  or  $ant\bar{s}$ ), being evident transfers (Prakritic) of stems in ant to the *a*-declension.

Extremely few such words occur in the oldest language: namely, p dn ia, 'draught' (RV.), vasantá, 'spring' (RV.: beside it also hemantá, 'winter'); veçantá or veçantí, 'tank' (AV.; ÇB. veçántā); jīvantí, a certain healing plant (RV.); and probably the proper name tarantá (RV.). A few others are instanced as admitted later: thus, nandanta and nandayanta, gadayanta, jayanta, jaranta, prāņanta, etc.: all are said to be accented on the final.

A different extension of the same suffix is exhibited in the proper names dhvasanti and cucanti (RV.), with which may be mentioned purusanti.

1173. वॉस्  $v\bar{a}ns$  (or वस् vas). For the (perfect active) participles made with this suffix, see above, chaps. X. and XIV., and **458**ff.

A few words of irregular and questionable formation were noticed at 402, above. Also, apparent transfers to a form us or usa.

The oldest language (BV.) has a very few words in vas, of doubtful relations: *fbhvas*, 'seizing', and *cthvas*, 'skilful' (beside words in va and van), and perhaps khidvas ( $\gamma$ khād). The neuter abstract vārivas, 'breadth, room' (belonging to urū, 'broad', in the same manner with vārīyas and varimān), is quite isolated.

The unique tatanústi (RV., once) is possibly to be divided tatanús-ti, and connected with this suffix.

1174.  $\Pi \Pi$  māna. The participles having this ending are, as has been seen, present and future only, and have the middle, or the derived passive, value belonging in general to the stems to which the suffix is attached.

1175.  $\exists \Pi \neg \bar{a}na$ . The participles ending in  $\exists \Pi \neg \bar{a}na$  are of middle and passive value, like those just noticed, and either present, perfect, or (partly with the form  $\exists \Pi \neg \bar{s}ana$ : above, 897) aorist.

A few other words ending in the same manner in the old language may be mentioned here. The RV. has the adjectives vásaväna, 'well-endowed', and  $\bar{u}rdhvas\bar{a}n\dot{a}$ , 'uplifted', evidently made on the model of participial stems. Also the proper names *ápnavāna*, *pfthavāna*, and *cyávāna* and *cyávatāna*. *Párçāna*, 'abyss', is doubtful.

1176. A ta. The use of this suffix in forming participles directly from the root, or from a conju

a tense) stem, was explained above, chap. XIII. The participles thus made are in part intransitive, but in great part passive in value (like those made by the two preceding suffixes, but in much larger measure, and more decidedly).

For the frequent use of the connecting vowel i with the suffix, making its form *its*, see also chap. XIII.

**a.** A few general adjectives, or nouns with concrete meaning, are adaptations of this participle. Examples are: trstå, 'rough',  $c\bar{t}tå$ , 'cold', drdhå (for  $d\bar{r}dhå$ : **224** a), 'firm';  $d\bar{u}tå$ , 'messenger',  $s\bar{u}tå$ , 'charioteer'; rtå, 'right', ghrtå, 'ghee',  $j\bar{u}tå$ , 'kind',  $dy\bar{u}tå$ , 'gambling', nrttå, 'dance',  $j\bar{v}ttå$ , 'life', caritå, 'behavior.'. The adjective tigitå (RV.), 'sharp', shows anomalous reversion of palatal to guttural before the i (**216**).  $V\bar{u}v\dot{a}ta$ , 'dear', is a single example from a reduplicated root.

b. Doubtless after the example and model of participles from denominative stems (of which, however, no instances are quotable from the Veda), derivatives in *ita* are in the later language made directly from noun and adjective-stems, having the meaning of 'endowed with, affected by, made to be', and the like (compare the similar English formation in *ed*, as *horned*, *barefooted*, *bluecoated*). Examples are *rathita*, 'furnished with a chariot', etc.

c. A few words ending in ta are accented on the radical syllable, and their relation to the participial derivatives is very doubtful: such are ásta, 'home', márta, 'mortal', váta, 'wind'; and with them may be mentioned gárta (?), nákta, 'night', hásta, 'hand'.

d. Several adjectives denoting color end in *ita*, but are hardly connectible with roots of kindred meaning: thus, *palitâ*, 'gray', *âsita*, 'black', *róhita* and *lóhita*, 'red', *hárita*, 'green'; akin with them are *éta*, 'varlegated', *cyetâ*, 'white'.

The feminines of these stems are in part irregular: thus, éni and cyéni; róhiņi and lóhini, and háriņi (but the corresponding masc. háriņa also occurs); and ásikni, pálikni, and hárikni.

e. A small number of adjectives in the older language ending in ata are not to be separated from the participial words in ta, although their specific meaning is in part gerundive. They are: pacatá, 'cooked', darcatá and pacyata, 'seen, to be seen, worth seeing'; and so yajatá, haryatá, bharatá. The y of pacyata and haryatá indicates pretty plainly that the a also is that of a present tense-stem. Rajatá, 'silvery', is of more obscure relation to  $\gamma$ raj 'color'.

1177.  $\neg na$  (and  $\overline{z} \neg ina$ ,  $\overline{z} \neg una$ ). The use of the suffix  $\neg na$  in forming from certain roots participles equivalent to those in  $\neg ta$ , either alongside the latter or instead of them, was explained above. chap. XIII. (957).

a. With the same suffix are made a number of general adjectives, and

of nouns of various gender (fem. in  $n\bar{a}$ ). The accent is on the suffix or on the root. A few examples are: usná, 'hot', cuná, 'fortunate', áçna, 'ravenous', cvína, 'white'; masc. praçná, 'question', yajňá, 'offering', ghrná, 'heat', várna, 'color', svápna, 'sleep'; neut. parná, 'wing', rátna, 'jewel' (?); fem. trisnā, 'thirst', yācňá, 'supplication'. But many of the stems ending in na are not readily connectible with roots. An antithesis of accent is seen in kárna, 'ear', and karná, 'eared'.

b. The very few words ending in *ina* are perhaps related with these (perhaps rather with those in *ana*): thus, *aminá*, 'violent', *vrjiná*, 'crooked', *dáksina*, 'right', and one or two others of questionable etymology.

c. Of the words in una, few are clearly referable to roots: thus, karána, 'action', dharána, 'bearing', -cetúna, 'showing'; árjuna, 'white', táruna, 'young', váruna, 'Varuna'. In meaning and in accent they vary like the derivatives in ana.

These are all the proper participial endings of the language. The gerundives, later and earlier, are in so great part evident secondary formations, that they will be noticed farther on, under the head of secondary derivation.

We will take up now the other suffixes forming agent-nouns and adjectives, beginning with those which have more or less a participial value.

1178.  $\exists u$ . With this suffix are made a considerable body of derivatives, of very various character — adjectives, and agent-nouns of all genders, with different treatment of the root, and with different accent. It is especially used with certain conjugational stems, desiderative (particularly later) and denominative (mainly earlier), making adjectives with the value of present participles; and in such use it wins in part the aspect of a secondary suffix.

The root has oftenest a weak (or weakened) form; but it is sometimes vriddhied; least often (when capable of guma), it has the guma-strengthening — all without any apparent connection with either accent or meaning or gender. After final radical  $\bar{a}$  is usually addded y (258) before the suffix. A few derivatives are made from the reduplicated root.

Many words ending in u are not readily, or not at all, connectible with roots; examples will be given only of those that have an obvious etymology.

a. Examples' of ordinary adjectives are:  $ur\hat{u}$ , 'wide',  $rj\hat{u}$ , 'straight',  $prth\hat{u}$ , 'broad',  $mrd\hat{u}$ , 'soft',  $s\bar{a}dh\hat{u}$ , 'good',  $sv\bar{a}d\hat{u}$ , 'sweet',  $t\hat{a}pu$ , 'hot',  $v\hat{a}su$ , 'good';  $j\bar{a}y\hat{u}$ , 'conquering',  $d\bar{a}r\hat{u}$ , 'bursting';  $cay\hat{u}$ , 'lying',  $rek\hat{u}$ , 'empty';  $dh\bar{a}y\hat{u}$ , 'thirsty',  $p\bar{a}y\hat{u}$ , 'protecting'. Final  $\bar{a}$  appears to be lost before the suffix in -sthu (sugth $\hat{u}$ , anugth $\hat{u}$ ). b. Examples of nouns are: masc. aṅrú, 'ray', ripú, 'deceiver', vāyú, 'wind-god', ásu, 'life', mánu, 'man, Manu'; fem. fsu (also masc.), 'arrow', síndhu (also masc.), 'river'; tanú, 'body'.

c. Derivatives from reduplicated roots are:  $cikit\hat{u}$ ,  $jigy\hat{u}$ , sismu, -tatmu(unless this is made with *nu* or *tnu*),  $y\hat{a}yu$  or  $yay\hat{u}$  and  $y\hat{a}yu$  (with final  $\tilde{a}$  lost),  $p\hat{i}pru$  (proper name),  $-d\hat{a}dhayu$ ; and  $babhr\hat{u}$ , -raru (aráru), maliml $\hat{u}$  (?) have the aspect of being similar formations.

d. A few derivatives are made from roots with prefixes, with various accentuation: for example, upāyú, 'on-coming', pramayú, 'going to destruction', viklindu, a certain disease, abhícu, 'rein (directer)', sámvasu, 'dwelling to-gether'.

e. From tense-stems, apparently, are made tanyú, 'thundering', and (with acristic s) dáksu and dháksu (all RV.).

f. Participial adjectives in  $\hat{u}$  from desiderative "roots" (stems with loss of their final a) are sufficiently numerous in the ancient language (BV. has more than a dozen of them, AV. not quite so many) to show that the formation was already a regular one, extensible at will; and later such adjectives may be made from every desiderative. Examples (older) are: ditsú, dipsú, cikitsú, titiksú, pipīsú, mumuksú, cicliksú; and, with prefix, abhidipsú.

These adjectives, both earlier and later, may take an object in the accusative (271a).

g. A few similar adjectives are made in the older language from causatives: thus, dhārayú ('persistent'), bhājayú, bhāvayú, mandayú, gramayú; and mṛgayú from the caus.-denom. mṛgáya.

h. Much more numerous, however, are such formations from the more proper denominatives, especially in the oldest language (RV. has toward eighty of them; AV. only a quarter as many, including six or eight which are not found in RV.; and they are still rarer in the Brahmanas). In a majority of cases, personal verbal forms from the same denominative stem are in use: thus, for example, to aghāyú, arātīyú, rjūyú, caranyú, manaryú, sanisyú, urusyú, saparyú; in others, only the present participle in yánt, or the abstract noun in  $y\dot{a}$  (1149), or nothing at all. A few are made upon denominative stems from pronouns: thus, tvāyú (beside tvāyánt and tvāyú, yuvaya or yuvaya, asmaya, svaya, and the more anomalous ahamva and kimyú. Especially where no other denominative forms accompany the adjective, this has often the aspect of being made directly from the noun with the suffix yu, either with a meaning of 'seeking or desiring', or with a more general adjective sense : thus, yavayú, 'seeking grain', varāhayú, 'boar-hunting', stanasyú, 'desiring the breast'; ūrņāyú, 'woolen', yuvanyú, 'youthful', bhimayú, 'terrible'. And so the "secondary suffix yu" wins a degree of standing and application as one forming derivative adjectives (as in ahamyú and kimyú, above, and doubtless some others, even of the RV. words). In three RV. cases, the final as of a noun-stem is even changed to o before it: namely, anhoyú, duvoyú (and duvoyá; beside duvasyú), áskrdhoyu.

None of the words in yu show in the Veda resolution into iu.

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1179.  $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$   $\overline{u}$ . The long  $\overline{u}$  is a vastly rarer suffix than the other long simple vowels, already described (1149, 1155). It makes a small number of feminines corresponding to masculines in u, a very few independent feminines, and two or three very rare masculines: as to all which, see above, 355 c.

1180.  $\exists \pi \ uka$ . With this suffix are made derivatives having the meaning and construction (271g) of a present participle. The root is strengthened, and has the accent.

The derivatives in uka are hardly known in the Veda; but they become frequent in the Brāhmaņas, of whose language they are a marked characterfitic; and they are found occasionally in the later language. In all probability, they are originally and properly obtained by adding the secondary suffix ka (12222) to a derivative in u; but they have gained fully the character of primary formations, and in only an instance or two is there found in actual use an u-word from which they should be made.

The root is only so far strengthened that the radical syllable is a heavy (79) one; and it has the accent, whether the derivative is made from a simple root or from one with prefix.

a. Examples, from the Brāhmana language, are: váduka, náçuka, upakrámuka, prapáduka, upasthāyuka (258), vyūyuka, véduka, bhávuka, ksódhuka, háruka, vúrşuka, samárdhuka, dánçuka, ālambuka, çikşuka (QB.: RV. has çikşú), pramáyuka (ŞB. has pramāyu).

b. Exceptions as regards root-form are: nirmárguka (with vrddhi-strengthening, as is usual with this root: **627**), -kasuka. AV. accents sárakasuka (ÇB. has sankásuka) and víkasuka: RV. has sānuká (which is its only example of the formation, if it be one; AV. has also ghátuka from  $\gamma$  han, and *fipramāyuka*); vasuká (TS. et al.) is probably of another character. Acamāyuka (PB. et al.) is the only example noticed from a conjugation-stem.

c. A formation in  $\overline{u}ka$  (a suffix of like origin, perhaps, with uka) may be mentioned here: namely, from reduplicated roots,  $j\overline{a}gar\dot{u}ka$ , 'wakeful', dandaccuka, 'biting',  $y\overline{a}yaj\dot{u}ka$ , 'sacrificing much',  $v\overline{a}vad\overline{u}ka$  (later), 'talkative'; salaluka is questionable.

1181.  $\[empirical{B}]$  and  $\[empirical{B}]$ . Here, as in the preceding case, we seem to have a suffix made by secondary addition of  $\[empirical{B}]$  to a derivative in  $\[empirical{B}]$  a; but it has, for the same reason as the other, a right to be mentioned here. Its free use in the manner of a primary suffix is of still later date than that of uka; it has very few examples in the older language.

a. In RV. is found (besides  $p\bar{a}vak\dot{a}$ , which has a different accent, and which, as the metre shows, is usually to be pronounced  $pav\bar{a}ka$ ) only  $s\dot{a}yaka$ , 'missile'; AV. adds  $p\bar{i}yaka$  and  $v\dot{a}dhaka$ , and VS. abhikrócaka. But in the later language such derivatives are common, usually with raising of the root-syllable by strengthening to heavy quantity: thus,  $n\bar{a}yaka$ ,  $d\bar{a}yaka$  (258),  $p\bar{a}caka$ ,  $gr\bar{a}haka$ ,  $dr\bar{a}vaka$ , bodhaka; but also janaka, khanaka. They are declared by the grammarians to have the accent on the radical syllable. They often occur in copulative composition with gerundives of the same root: thus, bhakṣyabhakṣaka, 'eatable and eater',  $v\bar{a}cyav\bar{a}caka$ , 'designated and designation', and so on.

That the derivatives in *aka* sometimes take an accusative object was pointed out above (271c).

The corresponding feminine is made sometimes in  $ak\bar{a}$  or in  $ak\bar{a}$ , but more usually in  $ik\bar{a}$ : thus,  $n\bar{a}yik\bar{a}$  (with  $n\bar{a}yak\bar{a}$ ),  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$ ,  $bodhik\bar{a}$ ,  $dr\bar{a}vik\bar{a}$ ; compare secondary aka, below, 13232 cl.

b. Derivatives in  $\bar{a}ka$  are said to be made from a few roots: thus, *jalpāka*, *bhikṣāka*; but they are not found in the Veda (unless in "pāvaka": see above), and appear to be very rare at every period. With  $\bar{a}ku$  is made in RV. *mydayáku*, from the causative stem: *pýdāku* and the proper name *fiķvāku* are of obscure connection.

Derivatives in ika and ika will be treated below, in connection with those in ka (1186).

1182.  $\overline{\eta}$  tr (or  $\overline{n}$  tar). The derivatives made by this suffix, as regards both their mode of formation and their uses, have been the subject of remark more than once above (see 369 ff., 942 ff.). Agent-nouns are formed with it at every period of the language; these in the oldest language are very frequently used participially, governing an object in the accusative (271 d); later they enter into combination with an auxiliary verb, and, assuming a future meaning, make a periphrastic future tense (942).

Their corresponding feminine is in tri.

**a.** The root has uniformly the *guna*-strengthening. A unionvowel i (very rarely, one of another character) is often taken: as regards its presence or absence in the periphrastic future forms, see above (943).

Without guna-change is only usif, 'plough-ox' (no proper agent-noun: apparently uks-tr': compare the nouns of relationship further on). The root grah has, as usual,  $\bar{\imath}$  — thus, -grahītr'; and the same appears in -tarītr' and -marītr'. An u-vowel is taken instead by tarutr and tarutr', dhanutr, and sanutr; long in varūtr'; strengthened to o in manotr and manotr'. From a reduplicated root comes  $v\bar{u}v\bar{a}tr$ .

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**b**. The accent, in the older language, is sometimes on the suffix and sometimes on the root; or, from roots combined with prefixes, sometimes on the suffix and sometimes on the prefix.

In general, the accent on the root or prefix accompanies the participial use of the word; but there are exceptions to this: in a very few instances (four), a word with accented suffix has an accusative object; very much more often, accent on the root appears along with ordinary noun value. The accent, as well as the form, of mandary is an isolated irregularity.

Examples are: jétä dhánāni, 'winning treasures'; yūyám mártarh çrótūraḥ, 'ye listen to a mortal'; but, on the other hand, yarhtá vásūni vidhaté, 'bestowing good things on the pious'; and jétā jánānām, 'conqueror of peoples'.

c. The formation of these nouns in  $t_7$  from conjugation-stems, regular and frequent in the later language, and not very rare in the Brähmanas, is met with but once or twice in the Veda (bodkayit² and codayit², RV.). In negtr, a certain priest (RV. and later), is apparently seen the acristic s.

d. The words of relationship which, in whatever way, have gained the aspect of derivatives in  $t_r$ , are *pitf*, *mātf*, *bhrátr*, *yátr*, *duhitf*, *náptr*, *jámātr*. Of these, only *mātf* and *yátr* are in accordance with the ordinary rules of the formation in  $t_r$ .

e. Instead of tr is found tur in one or two RV. examples: yarhtúr, sthātúr.

f. Apparently formed by a suffix r (or ar) are  $usr'_{r}$ , savyasihr, nánāndr, devr', the last two being words of relationship. For other words ending in r, see **369**.

1183. इन्*in*. This is another suffix which has assumed a primary aspect and use, while yet evidently identical in real character with the frequent secondary suffix of the same form denoting possession (below, 1230).

How far it had gained a primary value in the early language, is not easy to determine. Most of the words in in occurring in RV. and AV. are explainable as possessives; in many the other value is possible, and in a few it is distinctly suggested: thus,  $keval\bar{u}din$ ,  $bhadrav\bar{u}din$ , nitodin,  $\bar{u}c\bar{u}r\bar{u}isin$ ,  $in\bar{u}min$ ,  $vivy\bar{u}dhin$ ; with a oristic s, sakin; and, with reduplication, niyayin. As the examples indicate, composition, both with prefixes and with other elements, is frequent; and, in all cases alike, the accent is on the suffix.

Later, the primary employment is unquestionable, and examples of it, chiefly in composition, are frequent. The radical syllable is usually strengthened, a medial *a* being sometimes lengthened and sometimes remaining unchanged. Thus, satyavūdin, 'truth-speaking', *abhibhāşin*, 'addressing', *manohārin*, 'soul-winning'. In *bhāvin* has established itself a prevailingly future meaning: 'about to be'. The use of an accusative object with words in *in* was noticed above (271b).

1184.  $\overline{\xiUH}$  iyas and  $\overline{\xiW}$  is the. These, which, from forming intensive adjectives corresponding to the adjective of root-form, have come to be used, within somewhat narrow limits, as suffixes of adjective comparison, have been already sufficiently treated above, under the head of comparison (486-470).

It may be further noticed that  $jy \notin j \hbar a$  has in the older language (only two or three times in RV.) the accent also on the final,  $jy \notin j \hbar a$ ; and that pársistha is made from a secondary from of root, with a oristic s added.

When the comparative suffix has the abbreviated form yas (470), its y is never to be read in the Veda as *i*.

No other suffixes make derivatives having participial value otherwise than in rare and sporadic cases; those that remain, therefore, will be taken up mainly in the order of their frequency and importance.

1185.  $\exists$  tra. With this suffix are formed a very few adjectives, and a considerable number of nouns, mostly neuter, and often having a specialized meaning, as signifying the means or instrument of the action expressed by the root. The latter has usually the *guna*-strengthening, but sometimes remains unchanged. The accent is various, but more often on the radical syllable.

Here, as in certain other cases above, we have probably a suffix originally secondary, made by adding a to the primary  $t_{\tau}$  or tar (1182); but its use is like that of a primary suffix.

a. Examples of neuter nouns are: gátra, 'limb', páttra, 'wing', pátra, 'cup', yóktra, 'bond', vástra, 'garment', crótra, 'ear'; astrá, 'missile', stotrá, 'song of praise', potrá, 'vessel'; of more general meaning, dáttra, 'gift', ksétra, 'flehd', mútra, 'urine', hotrá, 'sacrifice'. The words accented on the final have often an abstract meaning: thus, ksatrá, 'authority', rästrá, 'kingdom', çüstrá, 'doctrine', sattrá, 'sacrificial session' (also jñūtrá, 'kmowledge').

b. Masculines are: dánstra, 'tusk', mántra, 'prayer', attrá (or atrá: 232), 'devourer', ústra, 'buffalo, camel', and a few of questionable etymology, as mitrá, 'friend', putrá, 'son', vrtrá, 'foe'. Mitrá and vrtrá are sometimes neutors even in the Veda, and mitra comes later to be regularly of that gender.

c. Feminines (in trā) are: ástrā, 'goad', mátrā, 'measure', hótrā, 'sacrifice' (beside hotrá), danstrā (later, for dánstra); nāstrā, 'destroyer'.

d. Not seldom, a "union-vowel" appears before the suffix; but this is not usually the equivalent of the union-vowel used with tr (above, 1182a).

For the words in *itra* have the accent on *i*: thus, artira, 'impelling, oar', khanfira, 'shovel', pavfira, 'sieve'; jantira, 'birth-place', sanfira, 'gift', etc.: the combination fira has almost won the character of an independent suffix. The preceding vowel is also sometimes a (sometimes apparently of the present-stem): thus, yájatra, 'venerable', krntátra, 'shred', gāyatrá (f. -trí), 'song', pátatra, 'wing'; but also ámatra, 'violent', -krtatrá, 'cutting-place', vádhatra, 'deadly weapon', and varatrá, 'strap'. Tárutra, 'overcoming', corresponds to tarutrí.

The words still used as adjectives in tra are mostly such as have unionvowels before the suffix. A single example from a reduplicated root is *johtitra*, 'crying out'.

e. A word or two in tri and tru may be added here, as perhaps of kindred formation with those in tra: thus, áttri, 'devouring', arcátri, 'beaming'; cátru (cáttru: 232), 'enemy'.

1186.  $\pi$  ka. The suffix  $\pi$  ka is of very common use in secondary derivation (below, 1222); whether it is directly added to roots is almost questionable: at any rate, extremely few primary derivatives are made with it.

The words which have most distinctly the aspect of being made from roots are *çúşka*, 'dry', *çlóka* ( $\gamma$ *çru*, 'hear'), 'noise, report', etc., and *-sphāka*, 'teeming'; and *stúkā*, 'flake', and *stoká*, 'drop', seem to belong together to a root *stu*. Other words in *ka* are of obscure connections, for the most part.

But ka enters, in its value as secondary, into the composition of certain suffixes reckoned as primary: see aka and uka (above, 1180, 1181).

A few words in which ika and ika seem added to a root, though they are really of a kindred formation with the preceding, may be most conveniently noticed here: thus,  $vr_{c}cika$  ( $\gamma$  vracc), 'scorpion'; ánika (?), 'face', dr_ccika, 'aspect', mrdiká, 'grace', vrdhiká, 'increaser', ácarika and vícarika, 'gripes', -rjika, 'beaming'; and, from reduplicated root, parpharíka, 'scattering' (?). Compare secondary suffix ka (below, 1222).

1187.  $\overline{u}$  ya. It is altogether probable that a part of the derivatives made with this suffix are not less entitled to be ranked as primary than many of those which are above so reckoned. Such, however, are with so much doubt and difficulty to be separated from the great mass of secondary derivatives made with the same suffix that it is preferred to treat them all together under the head of secondary formation (below, 1210-13).

1188.  $\[mathcal{e}\] ra$ . With this suffix are made a considerable number of adjectives, almost always with weak root-form, and usually with accent on the suffix. Also, a few words used as nouns, of various gender.

In some cases, the suffix is found with a preceding vowel, having the aspect of a union-vowel.

a. Examples of adjectives in ra of obvious derivation are: ksiprá, 'quick', chidrá, 'split', turá, 'strong', bhadrá, 'pleasing', cakrá, 'mighty', cukrá, 'bright', hirisrá, 'injurious'; — with accent on the root, gridhra, 'greedy', dhíra, 'wise' (secondary?), vípra, 'inspired'.

b. From roots with prefixes come only an example or two: thus, nicirá, 'attentive', nímrgra, 'joining on'.

c. Nouns in ra are, for example: masc. vīrá, 'man', vájra, 'thunderbolt', çára, 'hero'; neut. kṣīrá, 'milk', riprá, 'defilement'; fem. dhárā, 'stream', súrā, 'intoxicating drink'.

The forms of this suffix with preceding vowel may best be considered here, although some of them have nearly gained the value of independent endings. Thus:

d. With ara are made a few rare words: the adjectives dravará, 'running', patará, 'flying', (with prefix) nyocará, 'suiting'; and the neuters gambhára, 'depth', tásara, 'shuttle', sánara, 'gain': bhārvará and vāsará are doubtless of secondary formation; and the same thing may be plausibly conjectured of others.

e. With ira are made a few words, some of which are in common use: thus, ajirâ, 'quick', işirâ, 'lively', madirâ, 'pleasing', dhvasirâ, 'stirring up', badhirâ, 'deaf'; perhaps sthâvira, 'firm'; and sthirâ, 'hard', and sphirâ, 'fat', with displacement of final radical  $\bar{a}$ ; also sarirâ, 'wave' (usually salilâ), and one or two other words of obscure derivation.

With ira are made gabhirá or gambhirá, 'profound', and cávira, 'mighty'; and perhaps cárira, 'body'.

f. With ura are made a few words, of which the secondary character is still more probable: thus, anhurá (anhu-ra?), 'narrow', ásura (ásu-ra?), 'living', vithurá, 'tottering', yádura, 'embracing'.

With ūra, apparently, is made sthūrá, 'stout' (compare sthávira).

1189.  $\overline{e}$  la. This suffix is only another form of the preceding, exchanging with it in certain words, in others prevalently or solely used from their first appearance.

Conspicuous examples of the interchange are çuklá, sthūlá, -miçla, çithilá, salilá.

Examples of the more independent use are:  $p\bar{a}l\dot{a}$ , 'protecting', *ánila* (or *anfla*), 'wind', *trpála*, 'joyous'; later *capala* and *tarala* (said to be accented on the final), and *harşula* (the same). Many words ending in *la* are of obscure etymology.

1190.  $\exists va$ . Very few words of clear derivation are made with this suffix — too few to be worth classifying. They are of various meaning and accent, and generally show a weak root-form.

### 1195] STEMS IN ra, la, va, ri, ru, vi, snu, sna.

Examples are: rkvá, 'praising', pakvá, 'ripe', cikvá, 'artful', razvá, 'joyful', ūrdhvá, 'lofty'; vákva, 'twisting'; ūrvá, 'stall', sruvá, 'spoon'; éva, 'quick, course', áçva, 'horse'.

The words in va exhibit only in sporadic cases resolution of the ending into ua.

1191.  $\overline{n}$  r. With this suffix are formed, directly or with preceding u, a small number of derivatives.

Thus, for example: cubhrí, 'beautiful', bhúri, 'abundant'; and, with uri, jásuri, 'exhausted', dácuri, 'pious', sáhuri, 'mighty'; añgúri (or añgúli), 'finger'.

1192. Tru. This suffix makes a few adjectives and neuter nouns, either directly or with a preceding vowel.

Thus:  $dh\bar{a}r\dot{a}$ , 'sucking',  $bh\bar{r}r\dot{a}$ , 'timid',  $c\dot{d}ru$ , 'pleasant'; — with preceding a-vowel: patáru, 'flying', vandáru, 'praising', pfyāru, 'scoffing', and (from causative stem, with *l* for *r*) patayālá, 'flying', spṛhayālá, 'desiring' (late); — with preceding *e*, maderá, 'rejoicing', sanéru, 'obtaining', and péru (of doubtful meaning).

1193. वि vi. By this suffix are made:

Two or three derivatives from reduplicated roots: jágrvi, 'awake', dádhrvi, 'sustaining', dídivi, 'shining'; and a very few other words; ghrsvi, 'lively', dhruví, 'firm' (and perhaps jívri, 'worn out', for jirvi: BR.).

Here may be mentioned *cikitvît* (RV., once), apparently made with a suffix vit from a reduplicated root-form.

1194. *员 snu*. With this suffix, with or without a unionvowel, are made a few adjective derivatives from roots, but still more from causative stems.

a. From simple roots: direct, jiṣṇá, 'victorious', daākṣṇá, 'biting', bhūṣṇu, 'thriving', ni-ṣatəná, 'sitting down', sthāənu, 'fixed'; with unionvowel i, cariṣṇá, 'wandering', rociṣṇá, 'shining', gamiṣṇá (TB.), 'going', -mariṣṇu, 'mortal', pra-janiṣṇá, 'generating'.

b. From causative stems: for example, cyāvayiṣṇú (AV.), 'setting im motion', pārayiṣṇú, 'rescuing', poṣayiṣṇú, 'causing to thrive', abhi-çocayiṣṇú 'attacking with heat', pra-janayiṣṇu (K.), 'generating'.

c. It seems not unlikely that the s of this suffix is originally that of a stem, to which nu is added. Such a character is still apparent in *kravisnú*. 'craving raw flesh (*kravisi*)'; and also in *vadhasnu*, 'murderous', and *vrdhasnú* (?), 'thriving'.

1195. H sna. Extremely few words have this ending.

It is seen in tikená, 'sharp', and perhaps in *clakená*, and *-rūkena;* and in *deená* (usually trisyllabic: *daïena;*, 'gift'. Unless in the last, it is not found preceded by *i*; but it has (like *snu*, above) a before it in *vadhasná*, 'deadly weapon', *karásna*, 'fore-arm'.

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1196. तु tnu. This suffix is used nearly in the same way with हा snu (above, 1194).

a. As used with simple roots, the t is generally capable of being considered the adscititious t after a short root-final, to which nu is then added: thus, krinú, 'active', hatnú, 'deadly', -tatnu, 'stretching'; and, from reduplicated roots, jigatnú, 'hasting', and jighatnú, 'harming'; but also dartnú, 'bursting'. Also, with union-vowel, dravitnú, 'running'.

b. With causative stems: for example, drāvayitnú, 'hasting', mādayitnú, 'intoxicating', stanayitnú, 'thunder', -āmayitnú, 'sickening'.

c. With preceding a, in  $p\bar{s}yatn \dot{a}$ , 'scoffing',  $\bar{a}$ -rujatn $\dot{a}$ , 'breaking into'; and kavatn $\dot{a}$ , 'miserly' (obscure derivation).

1197. H so. The words ending in suffixal H so, with or without preceding union-vowel, are a heterogeneous group, and in considerable part of obscure derivation. A few examples are:

a. With sa simply: jeşā, 'winning' (aoristic s?), ruksā, 'shining'; útea, n., 'fountain'; bhīsā, f., 'fear' (rather from the secondary root bhīs).

b. With preceding i-vowel: tavisá (f. távisi), 'strong', mahisá (f. mákisi), 'mighty', bharisá (?), 'seeking booty'; manīsá, f., 'devotion'.

c. With preceding u-vowel: arusa (f. arusi), 'red', açúsa, 'ravenous', tarusa, 'overcomer', púrusa and mánusa (-us-a?), 'man'; piyúsa, 'biestings'.

1198.  $\overline{a}$  as *i*. A few words in the oldest language are made with a suffix having this form (perhaps made by the addition of *i* to as).

Thus, atasí, 'vagabond', dharnasí, 'firm', sānasí, 'winning'; and dhāsí, m., 'drink', f., 'station'.

1199. 574 abha. A few names of animals, for the most part of obscure derivation, show this ending.

Thus, vysabhá and rsabhá, 'bull', carabhá, a certain fabulous animal, cerabha, a certain snake, gardabhá and rāsabhá, 'ass'. AV. has the adjective sthūlabhá, equivalent to sthūlá.

1200. a.  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{c}$ ,  $\overline{c$ 

b. য় ad. The words in ad are also given above (ibid.).

c.  $\overline{351}$  aj,  $\overline{351}$  ij,  $\overline{351}$  uj. The words with these endings were given at the same place (to be added is *bhisáj*, 'healer', of which the etymology is disputed): *tranáj* appears to be a secondary derivative, from *tranā*, 'thirst'.

1201. A number of other primary suffixes are either set up by the grammarians and supported with examples of questionable value, or doubtfully deducible from isolated words traceable to known roots, or from words of obscure connection. A few such may be mentioned here: and a in karanda and váranda and certain unquotable words (prakritized a-forms from the present participle); era and ora in unquotable words, and elima (above, 9666 d: perhaps a further derivative with secondary ima from era); mara (ma or man with secondary ra added) in ghasmara etc.; — sara in matsará, kara in púskara and other obscure words, pa in púspa and a number of other obscure words; and so on.

### **B.** Secondary Derivatives.

1202. Words of secondary derivation are made by the addition of further suffixes to stems already ending in evident suffixes.

But also, as pointed out above (1137-8), to pronominal roots, and to verbal prefixes and a few other indeclinable words.

1208. Changes of the stem. The stem to which the suffix is added is liable to certain changes of form.

a. Before a suffix beginning with a vowel or with y (which in this respect is treated as if it were *i*), final a and *i*-vowels are regularly lost altogether, while a final *u*-vowel has the gunastrengthening and becomes av; r and o and  $\bar{a}u$  (all of rare occurrence) are treated in accordance with usual euphonic rule.

An u-vowel also sometimes remains unstrengthened.

b. A final n is variously treated, being sometimes retained and sometimes lost, even along with a preceding a; and sometimes an a is lost, while the n remains: thus, vreanvant, vreana, vrea, vreator, vreana, from vrean. Of a stem ending in ant, the weak form, in at, is regularly taken: thus, vaivaevata (vivasvant).

Other alterations of a final are sporadic only.

1204. The most frequent change in secondary derivation is the *orddhi*-strengthening of an initial syllable of the stem to which a suffix is added.

The strengthened syllable may be of any character: radical, of a prefix, or of the first member of a compound: thus,  $\bar{a}cvin\delta$  (acvin),  $s\bar{a}umy\delta$  (sóma), parthiva (prthivi),  $\bar{a}mitr\delta$  (amitra), simrajya (samraj),  $s\bar{a}ukrtya$  (sukrt $\delta$ ), maitr $\bar{a}varun\delta$  (mitr $\delta varuna$ ),  $\bar{a}uccaihcravas\delta$  (uccaihcravas). As to the accompanying accent, see the next paragraph.

a. If a stem begins with a consonant followed by y or v, the semivowel is usually vriddhied, as if it were *i* or u, and the resulting  $\overline{a}i$  or  $\overline{a}u$ has y or v further added before the succeeding vowel.

This is most frequent where the y or v belongs to a prefix — as ni, vi, su — altered before a following initial vowel: thus,  $n\bar{a}iy\bar{a}y\bar{a}ka$  from

nyāya (as if niyāya), vāiyaçvá from vyàçva (as if víyaçva), sāúvaçvya from sváçva (as if suvaçva); but it occurs also in other cases, as sāuvará from svára, çāuva from çvan, against svāyambhuva (svayambhū), and so on.

AV. has irregularly  $k\bar{a}verak\dot{a}$  from k $\dot{u}vera$  (as if from kvera, without the euphonic y inserted).

b. This strengthening takes place especially, and very often, before the suffixes a and ya; also regularly before i,  $\bar{a}yana$  (with  $\dot{a}yani$  and  $k\bar{a}yani$ ), eya (with ineya), and later  $\bar{i}ya$ ; before the compound aka and ika, and later aki; and, in single sporadic examples, before na, ena, ina, ra, and twa (?): see these various suffixes below.

c. In a few exceptional cases, both members of a compound word have the initial vrddhi-strengthening: thus, for example, sāumāpāusná (VS.: somāpūsán), kāúrupāñcāla (ÇB., GB.: kurupañcāla), cāturvāidya (caturveda), āihalāukika (ihaloka). Again, the second member of a compound instead of the first is occasionally thus strengthened : for example, catácārada (RV., AV.), pañcaçāradīya (TB. etc.), 'somārāudra (TS.), trisāhasrī, daçasāhasra, pūrvavārsika (not quotable), caturādhyāya, gurulāghava.

The guna-strengthening (except of a final u-vowel: above, 1203 a) is nowhere an accompaniment of secondary derivation: for an apparent exception or two, see 1209 h, i.

1205. A c c e n t. The derivatives with initial *vrddhi*-strengthening always have their accent on either the first or the last syllable. And usually, it is laid, as between these two situations, in such a way as to be furthert removed from the accent of the primitive; yet, not rarely, it is merely drawn down upon the suffix from the final of the latter; much less often, it remains upon an initial syllable without change. Only in the case of one or two suffixes is the distinction between initial and final accent connected with any difference in the meaning and use of the derivatives (see below, suffix *eya*: 1216).

No other general rules as to accent can be given. Usually the suffix takes the tone, or else this remains where it was in the primitive; quite rarely, it is thrown back to the initial syllable (as in derivation with initial vrddhi); and in a single case  $(t\bar{a}: 1237)$ , it is drawn down to the syllable preceding the suffix.

1206. Meaning. The great mass of secondary suffixes are adjective-making: they form from nouns adjectives indicating appurtenance or relation, of the most indefinite and varied character. But, as a matter of course, this indefiniteness often undergoes specialization: so, particularly, into designation of procedure or descent, so that distinctive patronymic and metronymic and gentile words are the result; or, again, into the designation of possession. Moreover, while the masculines and feminines of such adjectives are employed as appellatives, the neuter is also widely used as an abstract, denoting the quality expressed attributively by the adjective; and neuter abstracts are with the same suffixes made from adjectives. There are also special suffixes (very few) by which abstracts are made directly, from adjective or noun.

A few suffixes make no change in the part of speech of the primitive, but either change its degree (diminution and comparison), or make other modifications, or leave its meaning not sensibly altered.

1207. The suffixes will be taken up below in the following order. First, the general adjective-making suffixes, beginning with those of most frequent use (a, ya and its connections, i, ka); then, those of specific possessive value  $(in, vant \text{ and } mant, and their connections})$ ; then, the abstract-making ones  $(t\bar{a} \text{ and } tva, and their connections})$ ; then, the suffixes of comparison etc.; and finally, those by which derivatives are made only or almost only from particles.

1208.  $\Xi a$ . With this suffix are made a very large class of derivatives, from nouns or from adjectives having a nounvalue. Such derivatives are primarily and especially adjectives, denoting 'having a relation or connection (of the most various kind) with' that denoted by the more primitive word. But they are also freely used substantively; the masculine and feminine as appellatives, the neuter, especially and frequently, as abstract. Often they have a patronymic or gentile value.

The regular and greatly prevailing formation is that which is accompanied with *vrddki*-strengthening of the first syllable of the primitive word, simple or compound. Examples of this formation are:

a. From primitives ending in consonants: with the usual shift of accent,  $\bar{a}yas\dot{a}$ , 'of metal' ( $\dot{a}yas$ ),  $m\bar{a}nas\dot{a}$ , 'relating to the mind' ( $m\dot{a}nas$ ),  $s\bar{a}umsnas\dot{a}$ , 'friendliness' (sumánas),  $br\bar{a}hman\dot{a}$ , 'priest' ( $br\dot{a}hman$ ),  $h\bar{a}imavat\dot{a}$ , 'from the Himalaya' ( $him\dot{a}vant$ ),  $\bar{a}\bar{n}giras\dot{a}$ , 'of the Angiras family' ( $\dot{a}\bar{n}giras$ );  $h\dot{d}stina$ , 'elephantine' (hastin),  $m\dot{a}ruta$ , 'pertaining to the Maruts' ( $mar\dot{u}t$ ); — with accent thrown forward from the final upon the suffix,  $c\bar{a}rad\dot{a}$ , 'autumnal',  $v\bar{a}ir\bar{a}j\dot{a}$ , 'relating to the vir $\bar{a}j$ ',  $p\bar{a}usn\dot{a}$ , 'belonging to Pushán'; gairiksitá, 'son of Girikshít'; — with accent unchanged,  $m\dot{a}nusa$ , 'descendant of Mánus'.

The suffix is added (as above instanced) to the middle stem-form of stems in vant; it is added to the weakest in mághona nnd vártraghna; the ending in remains unchanged; an usually does the same, but sometimes loses its a, as in pāusņā, trāivrsņā, dāçarājāā; and sometimes its n, as in brākmā, āuksā, bārhatsāma.

b. From primitives in r: jātīra, 'victorious' (jetr' or jêtr, 'conqueror'), tvāstrā, 'relating to Tváshtar', sāvitrā, 'descendant of the sun' (savitr').

c. From primitives in u: usually with guna-strengthening of the u, as vāsavā, 'relating to the Vásus', ārtavā, 'concerning the seasons' (ftu), dānavā, 'child of Danu' (dánu), sāindhavā, 'from the Indus' (sindhu); — but sometimes without, as mādhva, 'full of sweets' (mādhu), pārçvā, 'side' (párçu, 'rib'), pāidvā, 'belonging to Pedú', tánva, 'of the body' (tanū).

d. From primitives in *i* and *i*, which vowels are supplanted by the added suffix: párthiva, 'earthly' (prthivi), sūrasvatá, 'of the Sárasvati', āindrāgná, 'belonging to Indra and Agni' (indrāgni'); pánkta, 'five-fold' (pankti), nūirrtá, 'belonging to Nírrti': — but āvayā, 'barrenness' (if from u-vi).

e. From primitives in  $\bar{a}$ , which in like manner disappears: yāmuná, 'of the Yamunā', sāraghá, 'honey' etc. (sarághā, 'bee'), kānīná, 'natural child' (kanīnā, 'girl').

f. A large number (nearly as many as all the rest together) from primitives in a, of which the final is replaced by the suffix: for example, with the usual shift of accent, āmitrā, 'inimical' (amítra, 'enemy'), vāruņā, 'of Váruņa', vāiçvadevā, 'belonging to all the gods' (viçvādeva), nūirhastā, 'handlessness' (nírhasta), vūiyaçvā, 'descendant of Vyàçva'; gārdabha, 'asinine' (gardabhā), dūtva, 'divine' (devā), mādhyandina, 'meridional' (madhyāndina), pāŭtra, 'grandchild' (putrā, 'son'), sāubhaga, 'good fortune' (subhága), vādhryaçva, 'of Vadhryaçvā's race'; — with unchanged accent (comparatively few), vāsantā, 'vernal' (vasantā, 'spring'), māitrā, 'Mitrā's', ātithigvā, 'of Atithigvā's race', dāfvodāsa, 'Dívodasa's'.

The derivatives of this form are sometimes regarded as made by internal change, without added suffix. Considering, however, that other final vowels are supplanted by this suffix, that a disappears as stem-final also before various other suffixes of secondary derivation, and that no examples of derivation without suffix are quotable from primitives of any other final than a, it seems far too violent to assume here a deviation from the whole course of Indo-European word-making.

1209. The derivatives made by adding  $\Xi a$  without *orddhi*change of the initial syllable are not numerous, and are in considerable part, doubtless, of inorganic make, results of the transfer to an *a*-declension of words of other finals.

**a.** A number of examples of stems in a made by transfer were noticed above (**309**). The cases of such transition occur most frequently in composition: thus, further, apa- (for ap or  $\bar{a}p$ , 'water'), -rca, -nara, -patha, -gava, -diva; from stems in an, -adhva, -astha, -aha, -vrya, but also -ahna and -vrya and vryana; from stems in i, -angula and -ratra; from the weakest forms of anc-stems (407) uccá, nīcá, parācá.

b. Also occurring especially in composition, yet likewise as simple words

often enough to have an independent aspect, are derivatives in a from nonns in as (rarely is, us): thus, for example, tamasá, rajasá, payasá, brahmavarcasá, sarvavedasá, deväinasá, parusá, tryūyusá.

c. Similar derivatives from adjectives in in are reckoned by the grammarians as made with the suffix ina: thus, malina, 'polluted', crāgina, 'horned' (not quotable). The only Vedic instance noted is paramethina (AV.).

d. From añc-stems (407) are made a few nouns in ka: thus, ánūka, ápāka, upáka, prátīka, parāká, etc.

e. From stems in r, neștrá, potrá, praçūstrá, from titles of priests.

f. Other scattering cases are: savidyutá, āvyusá, vírudha, kákuda, kakubhá.

g. The Vedic gerundives in tva (tua) have been already (966 a) pointed out as made by addition of a to abstract noun-stems in tu.

h. Trayá and dvayá come with guna-strengthening from numeral stems; náva, 'new', perhaps in like manner from nú, 'now'; and ántara from antár (?).

i. Bhesajá, 'medicine', is from bhisáj, 'healer', with guna-change; and perhaps devá, 'heavenly, divine, god', in like manner from div (compare  $\bar{a}vay \delta$ , above, 1208 d).

One or two cases have been noticed above, in which the addition of a to another suffix has made a seemingly independent suffix.

1210.  $\overline{a}$  ya. With this suffix are made a very large class of words, both in the old language and later.

The derivatives in ya exhibit a great and perplexing variety of form, connection, and application; and the relations of the suffix to others containing a ya-element — iya, iya, eya, ayya, eyya, enya — are also in part obscure and difficult. In the great majority of instances in the oldest language, the ya when it follows a consonant is dissyllabic in metrical value, or is to be read as ia. Thus, in RV., 266 words (excluding compounds) have ia, and only 75 have ya always; 46 are to be read now with ia and now with ya, but many of these have ya only in isolated cases. As might be expected, the value is more frequent after a heavy syllable: thus, in RV., there are 188 examples of ia and 27 of ya after such a syllable, and 78 of ia and 96 of ya after a light syllable (the circumflexed ya - that is to say, fa - being, as will be pointed out below, more liable to the resolution than ya or ya. It must be left for further researches to decide whether i. the ya are not included more than one suffix, with different accent, and different quantity of the *i*-element; or with an a added to a final *i* of the primitive. It is also matter for question whether there is a primary as well as a secondary suffix ya; the suffix at least comes to be used as if primary, in the formation of gerundives: but it is quite impossible to separate the derivatives into two such classes, and it has seemed preferable therefore to treat them all together here.

The derivatives made with ya may be first divided into those which do and those which do not show an accompanying orddiincrement of the initial syllable. 1211. Derivatives in  $\overline{a}$  ya with initial *crddhi*-strengthening follow quite closely, in form and meaning, the analogy of those in  $\overline{a}$  (above, 1208). They are, however, decidedly less common than the latter (in Veda, about three fifths as many).

Examples are: with the usual shift of accent, dāfvya, 'divine' (devá, pálitya, 'grayness' (palitá), grāfvya, 'cervical' (grīvá), ártvijya, 'priestly office' (rtvíj), gárhapatya, 'householder's' (grhápati), jánarājya, 'kingship' (janaráj), sánhgrāmajitya, 'victory in battle' (sanhgrāmajú), sāúvaçvya, 'wealth in horses' (sváçva), āúpadrastrya, 'witness' (upadrastr'); ādityá, 'Aditya' (áditi). sāumyá, 'relating to sóma', ātithyá, 'hospitality' (átithi), prājāpatyá, 'belongin: to Prajápatl', vāimanasyá, 'mindlessness' (vímanas), sáhadevya, 'descendant of Sahadeva'; — with accent thrown forward from the final upon the ending, lāukyá, 'of the world' (loká), kāvyá, 'of the Kaví-race', ārtvyá, 'descendant of Ritú', vāyavyá, 'belonging to the wind' (vāyú), rāivatyá, 'wealth' (revánt): — with unchanged accent (very few), ádhipatya, 'lordship' (ádhipati), crāísthya, 'excellence' (créstha), vāíçya, 'belonging to the third class' (víç, 'people'), pāúshəya, 'manliness' (púrhs).

The AV. has once  $n\bar{a}irb\bar{a}dhyd$ , with circumflexed final; if not an error, it is doubtless made through  $n\bar{a}irb\bar{a}dha$ ;  $v\bar{a}ismavy\bar{a}u$  (VS. i. 12) appears to be dual fem. of  $v\bar{a}ismav\bar{t}$ .

1212. Derivatives in  $\overline{a}$  ya without initial vyddhi-strengthening are usually adjectives, much less often (neuter, or, in  $\overline{a}$ , feminine) abstract nouns. They are made from every variety of primitive, and are very numerous (in Veda, three or four times as many as the preceding class).

The general mass of these words may be best divided according to their accent, into: **a.** Words retaining the accent of the primitive; **b.** Words with retracted accent; **c.** Words with acute  $y\dot{a}$  ( $i\dot{a}$ ); **d.** Words with circumflexed  $y\dot{a}$  (la). Finally may be considered the words, gerundives and action-nouns, which have the aspect of primary derivatives.

a. Examples of derivatives in ya retaining the accent of their primitives are: áçvya, 'equine' (áçva), ángya, 'of the limbs' (ánga), múkhya, 'foremost' (múkha, 'mouth'), ávya, 'ovine' (ávi), gávya, 'bovine' (gó), víçya, 'of the people' (víç), dúrya, 'of the door' (dúr), nárya, 'manly' (nŕ), vísnya, 'virile' (vísan), svarájya, 'autocracy' (svaráj), suvírya, 'wealth in retainers' (suvíra), viçvádevya, 'of all the gods' (viçvádeva), mayúraçepya, 'peacock-tailed'.

In the last word, and in a few others, the ya appears to be used (like ka, 1222 c, 2; yà, 1212 d, 5) as a suffix simply helping to make a possessive compound: so suhástya (beside the equivalent suhásta), mádhuhastya, dáça-māsya, micrádhānya.

b. Examples with retraction of the accent to the first syllable (as in derivation with vrddhi-increment) are: kánthya, 'guttural' (kanthá), skándhya, 'humeral' (skandhá), vrátya, 'of a ceremony' (vratá), méghya, 'in the clouds' (meghâ), pftrya, 'of the Fathere' (pitf), prátijanya, 'adverse' (pratijaná). Hiranyáya, 'of gold' (híranya), is anomalous both in drawing the accent forward, and in retaining the final a of the primitive.

c. Examples with acute accent on the suffix are: divyá, 'heavenly' (div), satyá, 'true' (sánt), vyāghryá, 'tigrine' (vyāghrá), kavyá, 'wise' (kaví); grāmyá, 'of the village' (gráma), somyá, 'relating to the sóma', bhūmyá, 'earthly' (bhúmi), sakhyá, friendship' (sákhi), jāspatyá, 'headship of a family' (jáspati).

d. Of derivatives ending in circumflexed yà (which in the Veda are considerably more numerous than all the three preceding classes together), examples are as follows:

1. From consonant-stems: viçyà, 'of the clan' (RV.: víç), hṛdyà, 'of the heart' (hṛd), vidyutyà, 'of the lightning' (vidyút), rājanyà, 'of the royal class' (rájan), dosanyà, 'of the arm' (dosán), cīrsanyà, 'of the head' (cīrsán), karmanyà, 'active' (kárman), dhanvanyà, 'of the plain' (dhânvan), namasyà, 'reverend' (námas), tvacasyà, 'cuticular' (tvácas), barhisyà, 'of barhis', äyusyà, 'giving life' (áyus), bhasadyà, 'of the buttocks' (bhasád), prācyà, 'eastern' (práñc), etc. Of exceptional formation is aryamyà 'intimate' (aryamán).

2. From u-stems: hanavyà, 'of the jaws' (hânu), vāyavyà, 'belonging to Vāyú', paçavyà, 'relating to cattle' (paçú), işavyà, 'relating to arrows' (fau); çaravyà, f., 'arrow' (câru, do.); and there may be added nāvyà, 'navigable' (especially in fem., nāvyà, 'navigable stream': nāú, 'boat').

Under this head belong, as was pointed out above (chap. XIV., **964**), the so-called gerundives in *tavyà* (later *távya*), as made by the addition of yà to the infinitive noun in *tu*. They are wholly wanting in the oldest language, and hardly found in later Vedic, although still later *tavya* wins the value of a primary suffix, and makes numerous derivatives. The RV. has  $pr\bar{a}_{c}avyà$ , 'to be partaken of' ( $pra + \sqrt{ac}$ ), without any corresponding noun  $pr\bar{a}_{c}u$ ; and also  $\bar{u}r_{j}avyà$ , 'rich in nourishment' ( $\bar{u}r_{j}$ ), without any intermediate  $\bar{u}rju$ .

3. From i and  $\bar{i}$ -stems hardly any examples are to be quoted. VS. has dundubly  $\dot{i}$  from dundublt.

4. From a-stems: svargyà, 'heavenly' (svargå), devatyà, 'relating to a deity' (devátā), prapathyà, 'guiding' (prapathå), budhnyà, 'fundamental' (budhnå), jaghanyà, 'hindmost' (jaghána), varuņyà, 'Váruna's', vīryà, 'might' (vīrå), udaryà, 'abdominal' (udára), utsyà, 'of the fountain' (útsa); and from  $\bar{a}$ -stems, urvaryà, 'of cultivated land' (urvárā), svāhyà, 'relating to the exclamation sváhā'.

The circumflexed ya is more generally resolved (into ia) than the other forms of the suffix: thus, in RV. it is never to be read as ya after a heavy syllable ending with a consonant; and even after a light one it becomes iain more than three quarters of the examples.

5. There are a few cases in which ya appears to be used to help make

a compound with governing preposition (next chapter, 1310): thus, apikaksyd, 'about the arm-pit', upapaksyd, 'upon the sides', udāpyd, 'up stream'; and perhaps upatrnyd, 'lying in the grass' (occurs only in voc.). But, with other accent, ánvāntrya, 'through the entrails', ápamāsya, 'on each month'; abhinabhyá, 'up to the clouds', ádhigartya, 'on the chariot floor'.

1213. The derivatives in  $\overline{a}$  ya as to which it may be questioned whether they are not, a least in part, primary derivatives from the beginning, are especially the gerundives, together with action-nouns coincident with these in form; in the later language, the gerundive-formation (above, 963) comes to be practically a primary one.

a. In RV. occur about 40 instances of gerundives in ya, of tolerably accordant form: the root usually unstrengthened (but cétya, bhávya, -hávya, márjya, yódhya; also -mádya, -váoya, bhāvyá); the accent on the radical syllable when the word is simple, or compounded with prepositions: thus, praçásya, upasádya, vihávya (but usually on the final after the negative prefix: thus, anāpyá, anapavrjyá) — exceptions are only bhāvyá and the doubtful ākāyyd; the ya resolved into ia in the very great majority of occurrences; a final short vowel followed by t (in -ftya, -krtya, -crútya, -stútya, and the reduplicated carkftya, beside carkfti: not in návya and -hávya), and ā changed to e (in -deya only). If regarded as secondary, they might be made with ya, in accordance with other formations by this suffix, in part from the rootnoun, as anukft-ya, in part from derivatives in a, as bhāvyá (from bhāva).

b. The AV, has a somewhat smaller number (about 25) of words of a like formation; but also a considerable group (fifteen) of derivatives in yà with the same value: thus, for example,  $\bar{a}dya$ , 'eatable',  $k\bar{a}rya$ , to be done', samāpya, 'to be obtained', atitārya, 'to be overpassed', nāvibhārya, 'to be carried in the apron', prathamavāsya, 'to be first worn'. These seem more markedly of secondary origin: and especially such forms as parivargya, 'to be avoided', avimokyá, 'not to be gotten rid of', where the guttural reversion clearly indicates primitives in ga and ka (**216.6**).

c. Throughout the older language are of common occurrence neuter abstract nouns of the same make with the former of these classes. They are rarely found except in composition (in AV., only citya and steya as simple), and are often used in the dative, after the manner of a dative infinitive. Examples are: brahmajyéya, vasudéya, bhāgadhéya, pūrvapéya, çataséya, abhibhúya, devahúya,! mantraçrútya, karmakŕtya, vritatúrya, hotrvárya, ahihátya, sattrasádya, çīrşabhídya, brahmacárya, nrsáhya. Of exceptional form are rtódya ( $\sqrt{vad}$ ) and sahaçéyya ( $\sqrt{ci}$ ); of exceptional accent, sadhástutya. And AV. has one example, ranya, with circumflexed final.

**d.** Closely akin with these, in meaning and use, is a small class of feminines in  $y\dot{a}$ : thus,  $k_{\tau}ty\dot{a}$ ,  $vidy\dot{a}$ ,  $ity\dot{a}$ ,  $mustihaty\dot{a}$ ,  $devayajy\dot{a}$ , and a few others.

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e. There remain, of course, a considerable number of less classifiable words, both nouns and adjectives, of which a few from the older language may be mentioned, without discussion of their relations: thus, súrya (with fem. sūryá), djya, púsya, nábhya; yújya, gŕdhya, frya, aryá and drya, márya, mádhya.

The suffixes apparently most nearly akin with ya may best be next taken up.

1214.  $\overline{\mathfrak{AU}}$  iya. This suffix is virtually identical with the preceding, being but another written form of the same thing. It is used only after two consonants, where the direct addition of ya would create a combination of difficult utterance.

It has the same variety of accent with ya. Thus:

a. With accent fya (= fa or yà): for example, abhríya, 'from the clouds' (abhrá), ksatrfya, 'having authority' (ksatrá), yajñfya, 'reverend' (yajñá), ho-trfya, 'libational' (hótrā).

b. With accent  $iy\hat{a} (= y\hat{a})$ : for example,  $agriy\hat{a}$ , 'foremost' ( $\hat{a}gra$ ), indriy $\hat{a}$ , 'Indra's' (later, 'sense': indra), kectriy $\hat{a}$ , 'of the field' (kectra).

c. With accent on the primitive: crótriya, 'learned' (crótra).

1215.  $\frac{1}{324}$  iya. This suffix also is apparently by origin a ya (ia) of which the first element has maintained its long quantity by the interposition of a euphonic y. It is accented always on the  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

a. In BV. occur, of general adjectives, only *ārjikiya* and *grhamedhiya*, and examples in the later Vedic are very few: e. g. parvatiya, 'mountainous' (AV., beside RV. parvatyd). In the Brähmanas, a number of adjectives from phrases (first words of verses and the like) are made in *iya*: thus, *kayūcubhīya*, *svāduskilīya*, *āpohisthīya*, etc.

b. It was pointed out above (965) that derivative adjectives in iya from action-nouns in ana begin in later Veda and in Brāhmana to be used gerundivally, and are a recognized formation as gerundives in the classical language.

c. Derivatives in iya with initial vrddhi are sometimes made in the later language: e. g. svāsrīya, pārvatīya.

d. The pronominal possessives madiys etc. (516) do not occur either in Veda or Brähmana; but the ordinals dvitiys etc. (487: with fractionals tritiys and turiys: 488), are found from the earliest period.

1216. QU eya. With this suffix, along with *orddhi*-increment of an initial syllable, are made adjectives, often having a patronymic or metronymic value. Their neuter is sometimes used as abstract noun. The accent rests usually on the final in adjectives of descent, and on the first syllable in others.

a. Thus, ārzeyá, 'descendant of a sage' (fei), sārameyá, 'of Sarámā's race', çātavaneyá, 'Çatavani's descendant', rāthajiteyá, 'son of Rathajit'; ásneya, 'of the blood' (asán), vásteya, 'of the bladder' (vastf), pāúruseya, 'coming from man' (púrusa), etc.

A more than usual proportion of derivatives in eya come from primitives in *i*, and possibly the suffix first gained its form by addition of ya to a gunated *i*, though afterward used independently.

The gerundive etc. derivatives in ya (above, 1213) from  $\bar{a}$ -roots end in éya; and, besides such, RV. etc. have sabhéya from sabhá, and didrkséya, 'worth seeing', apparently from the desiderative noun didrksá, after their analogy.

b. Derivatives in the so-called suffix ineyá — as sāubhāgineyá, kālyānineyá (neither quotable) — are doubtless made upon proximate derivatives in -inī (fem.).

o. In cyya (i. e. cyia) end, besides the neuter abstract sahacéyya (above, 1213 c), the adjective of gerundival meaning stuséyya (with aoristic s added to the root), and capatheyyà, 'curse-bringing' (or 'accursed'), from capátha.

1217.  $\nabla \neg u$  enga. This suffix is doubtless secondary in origin, made by the addition of  $\overline{u}$  ya to derivatives in a nasuffix; but, like others of like origin, it is applied in some measure independently, chiefly in the older language, where it has nearly the value of the later aniya (above, 1215b), as making gerundival adjectives.

The y of this suffix is almost always to be read as vowel, and the accent is (except in várenya) on the e: thus, -énia.

The gerundives have been all given above, under the different conjugations to which they attach themselves (1019, 1038, 1068); except *idénya*, 'praiseworthy', and várenya, 'desirable', they are of only isolated occurrence (once or twice each). The RV. has also two non-gerundival adjectives, v*irénya*, 'manly' (*virá*), and k*irténya*, 'famous' (*kirtí*), and TS. has anabhicastenyá (abhícasti); vijenyà (RV.) is a word of doubtful connections.

1218.  $\exists ICJ \bar{a}yya$ . With this suffix are made gerundival adjectives, almost only in RV. They have been noticed above (966 c). The ending is everywhere to be read as  $\dot{a}yia$ .

A few adjectives without gerundival value, and neuter abstracts, also occur: thus, bahupáyya, 'protecting many', nṛpáyya, 'men-guarding'; kuṇḍapáyya and purumáyya, proper names; pūrvapáyya, 'first drink', mahayáyya, 'enjoyment'; — and rasáyya, 'nervous', and uttamáyya, 'summit', contain no verbal root. Aláyya is doubtful; also  $\bar{a}k\bar{a}yyd$ , which its accent refers to a different formation, along with prahāyyd (AV.: Vhi_j, 'messenger', and pravāyyd (AV.), of doubtful value. 1219.  $\overline{ayana}$ . In the Brāhmaņas and later, patronymics made by this suffix are not rare. They come from stems in  $\overline{a}$ , and have *orddhi*-strengthening of the first syllable, and accent on the final.

In RV., the only example of this formation is  $k\bar{a}pv\bar{a}yana$  (voc.:  $k\bar{a}pva$ ); AV. has in metrical parts  $d\bar{a}k_p\bar{a}yapa$  and the fem.  $r\bar{a}m\bar{a}yapt$ ; and  $\bar{a}mus-y\bar{a}yapa$ , 'son of so-and-so' (516), in its prose. The RV. name uksapydyana is of a different make, elsewhere unknown.

1220. आयी वेश्रां. Only one or two words are made with this suffix, namely agnáyī (agni), 'Agni's wife', and vrṣākapāyī, 'wife of Vrishákapi'.

They seem to be feminines of a derivative in a made with  $v_{f}ddhi$ increment of the final i of the primitive.

1221.  $\xi$  *i*. Derivatives made with this suffix are patronymics from nouns in *a*. The accent rests on the initial syllable, which has the *vrddhi*-strengthening.

a. In RV. are found half-a-dozen patronymics in *i*: for example, *dg*niveçi, pāúrukutei, prátardani, sárhvaraņi; AV. has but one, práhrādi; in the Brābmaņas they are more common: thus, in AB., sāuyavasi, jānarhtapi, āruņi, jānaki, etc. A single word of other value — sárathi, 'charloteer' (sarátham) — is found from RV. down.

b. The words made with the so-called suffix aki — as  $v\bar{a}iy\bar{a}saki$ , 'descendant of Vyāsa', are doubtless properly derivatives in *i* from others in kaor aka.

That the secondary suffix *ika* is probably made by addition of ka to a derivative in *i* is pointed out below (1222 e).

c. RV. has tápusi, apparently from tápus with a secondary i added.

1222.  $\overline{n}$  ka. This is doubtless originally one of the class of suffixes forming adjectives of appurtenance. And that value it still has in actual use; yet only in a small minority of occurrences. It has been, on the one hand, specialized into an element forming diminutives; and, on the other hand, and much more widely, attenuated into an element without definable value, added to a great many nouns and adjectives to make others of the same meaning — this last is, even in the Veda, and still more in the later language, its chief office.

Hence, ka easily associates itself with the finals of deriv-

atives to which it is attached, and comes to seem along with them an integral suffix, and is further used as such. Of this origin are doubtless, as was seen above (1180, 1181), the socalled primary suffixes uka and aka; and likewise the secondary suffix *ika* (below, e).

The accent of derivatives in ka varies — apparently without rule, save that the words most plainly of diminutive character have the tone usually on the suffix.

a. Examples (from the older language) of words in which the suffix has an adjective-making value are: ántaka (ánta), 'end-making', bálhika (bálhi), 'of Balkh', āndāka (āndā), 'egg-bearing', sūcīka (sūcī), 'stinging', urvārukā, 'fruit of the gourd' (urvārū), paryūyikā (paryūyā), 'strophic'; from numerals, ekakā, dvakā, trikā, āstaka; trītīyaka, 'of the third day'; from pronoun-stems, asmāka, 'ours', yuşmāka, 'yours', māmaka, 'mine' (516); from prepositions, ántika, 'near', ánuka, 'following' (later, ādhika, útka, dvakū); and, with accent retracted to the initial syllable (besides ástaka and trītīyaka, already given), rū́paka (rūpā), 'with form', bābhruka (babhrū, 'brown'), a certain lizard.

b. Of words in which a diminutive meaning is more or less probable: açvaká, 'nag', kaninaka and kumāraká, 'boy', kanīnaká or kaninikā, 'giri', pādaká, 'little foot', putraká, 'little son', rājaká, 'princeling', çakuntaká, 'birdling'. Sometimes a contemptuous meaning is conveyed by such a diminutive: for formations with this value from pronominal stems, see above, **531**; another example is anyaká (RV.).

The diminutives in ka have the gender of their primitives.

c. The derivatives in ka with unchanged meaning are made from primitives of every variety of form, simple and compound, and have the same variety of accent as the adjective derivatives (with which they are at bottom identical). Thus:

1. From simple nouns and adjectives: ástaka, 'home', násikā, 'nostril', máksikā, 'fiy', aviká, 'ewe', isuká, 'arrow', dūraká, 'distant', sarvaká, 'all'. dhénukā (dhenú), 'cow', nágnaka (nagná), 'naked', báddhaka (baddhá), 'captive', vamraká, 'ant', arbhaká, 'small', cicuká, 'young', anīyaska, 'finer. ejatká, 'trembling', patayisnuká, 'flying'.

Such derivatives in the later language are innumerable: from almost any given noun or adjective may be made an equivalent, ending in ka or  $k\bar{a}$ (according to the gender).

2. From compound primitives: svalpaká, 'very small', vímanyuka, 'removing wrath', viksinatká, 'destroying', pravartamānaká, 'moving forward', viksīņaká, 'destroyed'.

In the Brāhmaņas and later, ka is often added to a possessive adjective compound (1307), sometimes redundantly, but usually in order to obtain a more manageable stem for inflection: thus, anaksīka, 'eyeless', atvākka, 'skinless', aretāska, 'without seed', vyasthaka, 'boneless', saciraska, 'along with the head', ekagāyatrīka, 'containing a single gāyatrī-verse', grhītāvasatīvarīka, 'one who has taken yesterday's water', sapatnīka, 'with his spouse', abhinavavayaska, 'of youthful age', aāgusthamātraka, 'of thumb size'. **d.** The vowel by which the ka is preceded has often an irregular character; and especially, a feminine in  $ik\bar{a}$  is common beside a masculine in aka (as is the case with the so-called primary aka: above, 1181).

In RV. are found beside one another only *iyattaká* and *iyattiká*; but AV. has several examples, and they become much more numerous later.

e. Two suffixes made up of ka and a preceding vowel — namely, aka and ika — are given by the grammarians as independent secondary suffixes, requiring initial *orddhi*-strengthening of the primitive. Both of them are doubtless in reality made by addition of ka to a final i or a, though coming to be used independently.

1. Of vrddhi-derivatives in aka no examples have been noted from the older language (unless māmakā, 'mine', is to be so regarded); and they are not common in the later: thus, āúmaka (not quotable), 'flaxen', mánojňaka (not quotable), 'flaxen', mánojňaka (not quotable), 'attractiveness', rūmanīyaka, 'delightfulness'.

2. Of vyddhi-derivatives in ika, the Veda furnishes a very few cases: vásantika, 'vernal', vársika, 'of the rainy season', hāímantika, 'wintry' (none of them in RV.); AV. has kairātiká, 'of the Kirātas', apparent fem. to a mase. kāirātaka, which is not found till later. Examples from a more recent period (when they become abundant) are: vāidika, 'relating to the Vedas', dhārmika, 'religious', āhnika, 'daily', vāinayika, 'well-behaved', dāuvārika, 'doorkeeper', nāiyāyika, 'versed in the Nyāya'.

1223. Several suffixes, mostly of rare occurrence and questionable character, contain a  $\neg$  *n* as consonantal element, and may be grouped together here.

a. With and are made, apparently, a pair of derivatives in RV. from primitives in u: thus, bhrgavana, vásavana.

b. With anī (which is perhaps the corresponding feminine) are made a number of wife-names: thus, indrānī, varuņānī (these, with ucīnárānī, purukútsānī, mudgalānī, are found in RV.), rudrānī, mātulānī, 'maternal uncle's wife', ksatriyānī, 'wife of a kshatriya' (not quotable).

c. The feminines in  $n\bar{i}$  and  $kn\bar{i}$  from masculine stems in ta have been already noticed above (1176 d). From  $p \delta t i$ , 'master, husband', the feminine is  $p \delta t n \bar{i}$ , both as independent word, 'spouse', and as final of an adjective compound: thus, devápatn $\bar{i}$ , 'having a god for husband', síndhupatn $\bar{i}$ , 'having the Indus as master'. And the feminine of parus $\delta$ , 'rough', is in the older language sometimes párus $n\bar{i}$ .

d. With ina are made a full series of adjective derivatives from the words with final añc (407 ff.); they are accented usually upon the penult, but sometimes on the final; and the same word has sometimes both accents: for example, apācina, nīcina, prācina, arvācina and arvācīná, praticina and pratīcīná, samīcīná. Besides these, a number of other adjectives, earlier and later: examples are samvatsarīna, 'yearly', prāvņsiņa, 'of the rainy season', viçvajanīna, 'of all people', jnātakulīna, 'of known family', adhvamīna, 'traveller' (ádhvan, 'way'), āçvīna, 'day's journey on horseback' (áçva, 'horse').

e. With ena is made sāmidhená, from samídh, with initial strengthening.

f. A few words in *ina*, having possessive meaning — as *malina*,  $cr\bar{n}gina$ , (said to be accented on the final) — are doubtless transfers of adjectives in *in* (1230) to the *a*-declension; compare 1209 c.

g. The adjectives made with simple na fall under another head (below, 1245 d), except the almost isolated straina, 'woman's', from stri, with initial strengthening (its correlative,  $p\bar{a}usinsna$ , occurs late).

1224. Certain suffixes containing a  $\Pi_m$  may be similarly grouped.

**a.** With ima are made a small number of adjectives from nouns in tra: thus, khanfirima, 'made by digging', krtrima, 'artificial', pūtrima, 'purified'. Also agrimá, 'foremost', (RV.: the ma having perhaps an ordinal value).

b. The uses of simple ma in forming superlatives (474) and ordinals (487) have been already noticed, and the words thus made specified;  $\bar{a}dim\hat{a}$  is further given by the grammarians, but is not quotable until a very recent period.

c. A few neuter abstracts end in mna: thus, dyumná, 'brightness', nymná, 'manliness'; and, from particles, nimná, 'depth', and sumná, 'welfare'. The suffix comes perhaps from man with an added a.

d. For the words showing a final min, see below, 1231.

1225. मय maya. With this suffix are formed adjectives signifying 'made or composed or consisting of'.

The accent is always on the penult. Before the *m*, the final of the primitive is in general treated as in external combination: thus, *mṛnmáya*, 'made of earth' (*mṛd*),  $v\bar{a}\bar{n}m\dot{a}ya$ , consisting of utterance' ( $v\bar{u}c$ ), *tejomáya*, 'made up of brightness', *adomáya*, 'of the nature of what is yonder' (QB.); but in the Veda are found manasmáya and nabhasmáya, with *ayasmáya*, which is allowed in the later language alongside *ayomáya*. RV. has sūmáya, 'of good make' (sú, 'well'), and kimmáya, 'made of what?'

The suffix maya is perhaps by origin a derivative noun  $(\gamma m \bar{a})$  in composition, but it has at any rate the full value of a suffix from the earliest period of the language.

1226. 7 ra. A few derivative adjectives are made with this suffix. Accent and treatment of the primitive are various.

**a.** With simple addition of *ra* are made, for example: *pūňsurá*, 'dusty', -*crīra* (also -*clīla*) in *acrīrá*, 'ugly', *dhūmrá*, 'dusky' (*dhūmá*, 'smoke'), *madhura* (late), 'sweet'.

In an example or two, there appears to be accompanying initial strengthening: thus,  $dgn\bar{i}dhra$ , 'of the fire-kindler' ( $agn\bar{i}dh$ ),  $c\bar{a}\bar{n}kura$ , 'stake-like' ( $ca\bar{n}k\dot{u}$ ).

b. With an inorganic vowel before the ending are made, for example, *médhira*, 'wise', *rathirá*, 'in a chariot'; *karmára*, 'smith'; *dantura* (late), 'tusked'; and others of obscure connections.

c. The use of ra in forming a few words of comparative meaning was noticed above (474), and the words so made were given.

1227.  $\overline{eq}$  la. This and the preceding suffix are really but two forms of the same. In some words they exchange with one another, and  $\overline{eq}$  la is usually, but not always, the later form in use.

Examples are: bahulá, 'abundant', madhulá (later madhura) and madhūla, 'sweet', bhīmala, 'fearful', jīvalá, 'lively', açlīlá (and açrīrá), 'wretched; with ā, vācāla, 'talkative' (late); with i, phenila, 'foamy' (late: phéna); with u, vātula and vātūla, 'windy' (late: váta); and mātula, 'maternal unele', is a somewhat irregular formation from mātr', 'mother'.

The later language has a few adjectives in *lu*, as *krpālu* and *dayālu*, • 'compassionate'.

1228.  $\exists va$ . A small number of adjectives have this ending (accented, added to an unaltered primitive).

a. Thus, arnavá, 'billowy', keçavá, 'hairy'; rāsnāvá, 'girded'; añjivá, 'slippery', çantivá, 'tranquillizing', çraddhívá, 'credible'.

b. There are a very few adjectives in vala and vaya which may be noticed here: thus, kṛṣīvalā, 'peasant' (kṛṣi, 'ploughing'), çikhāvala and damtāvala (late); druváya, 'wooden dish'.

c. With vya are made two or three words from names of relationship: thus, pfirvya, 'paternal uncle', bhrátrya, 'nephew, enemy'.

1229.  $\Im$  *ca.* A very few adjectives appear to be made by an added ending of this form.

Thus, romaçã or lomaçã, 'hairy', étaça, 'hasting', babhluçã or babhruçã, 'brownish', yuvaçã, 'youthful'.

Many of the adjective derivatives already treated have sometimes a possessive value, the general meaning of 'being concerned with, having relation to' being specialized into that of 'being in possession of'. But there are also a few distinctively possessive suffixes; and some of these, on account of the unlimited freedom of forming them and the frequency of their occurrence, are very conspicuous parts of the general system of derivation. These will be next considered.

1230.  $\overline{zn}$  in. Possessive adjectives of this ending may be formed almost unlimitedly from stems in  $\overline{a}$  or  $\overline{an}$  and are sometimes (but very rarely) made from stems with other finals.

A final vowel disappears before the suffix. The accent is Whitney, Grammar. 27 always in. As to the inflection of these adjectives see above, 438 ff. They are to be counted by hundreds in the older language, and are equally or more numerous in the later.

**a.** Examples from a-stems are: açvín, 'possessing horses', dhanín, 'wealthy', paksín, 'winged', balín, 'strong', bhagín, 'fortunate', vajrín, 'wielding the thunderbolt', çikhandín, 'crested', hastín, 'possessing hands', sodaçín, 'of sixteen', yardabhanādín, 'having an ass's voice'. brahmavarcasín, 'of eminent sanctity', sādhudevín, 'having luck at play', kūcidarthín, 'having errands everywhither'; — from ū-stems, manīsín, 'wise', çikhín, 'crested', riāyín, 'pious.

b. The examples from other stems are only sporadic: thus, from *i*-stems. abhimātin, 'plotting against', arcin, 'gleaming', ūrmin, 'billowy', khādin, 'spangled', and perhaps atithin, 'wandering'; in surabhintara, the nasal is rather a euphonic insertion, to break the succession of light syllables; — • from stems in an, varmin, 'cuirassed'; — from stems in as, retin, 'rich in seed', probably varcin, n. pr.: and çavasin and sahasin (unless these come through stem-forms in -sa.

c. It was noticed above (1183) that derivatives of this form often have a value equivalent to that of present participles; and that the suffix is used, both earlier and later, in the manner of a primary suffix, making words of such value directly from roots. The originally secondary character of the whole formation is shown, on the one hand, by the frequent use in the same manner of words bearing an unmistakably secondary form, as *practine*, garbhín. *jūrnín*, dhūmín, paripanthín, pravepanín, matsarín; and, on the other hand, by the occurrence of reverted palatals (216) before the *in*, which could only be as *in* replaced a: thus, arkín, -bhañgín, -sañgín, and -rokín.

d. In three or four sporadic cases, a y, preceded by  $\bar{a}$ , appears before in: thus, svadhāyin (VS.: TB. -vin; the y is here evidently an insertion: **258**), sykāyin, dhanvāyin, and ātatāyin (VS.: TS. -vin), which is found also in the later language. RV. has only marāyin (value?) and ytāyin (apparently through a ytāyi [1149] from the denominative ytāy). To assume for these a suffix yin is quite needless.

1231. In *min*. With this suffix are made an extremely small number of possessive adjectives.

In the old language, the words in min have the aspect of derivatives in in from nouns in ma, although in two or three cases — ismín, rymín, krudhmín in RV., vāgmín in ÇB. — no such nouns are found in actual use beside them. In the later language, min is used as independent element in a very few words: thus, gomin, 'possessing cattle', svāmin (Sūtras and later. 'master, lord' (sva, 'own').

1232. चिन् vin. The adjectives made with this suffix are also not at all numerous. They have the same meanings with those in  $\xi = in$ .

The RV. has ten adjectives in vin (ayudhvin, so-called, is doubtless a

gerund in  $tv\bar{i}: a-yudh-tv\bar{i})$ ; they become rather more common later. Though for them may be suspected a similar origin to those in *yin* and *min* (above), signs of it are much less clearly traceable.

The majority have vin added after as: thus, namasvín, 'reverential', tapasvín, 'heated', tejasvín, 'brilliant', yaçasvín, 'beautiful'; and çatasvín, 'possessing hundreds' (RV.), has an inserted s, by analogy with them. Others have  $\bar{a}$  (sometimes, by lengthening): thus, medhāvín, māyāvín, astrāvín, 'obedient to the goad', dvayāvín, 'double-minded', ubhayāvín, 'possessing of both kinds'. More rarely, vín is added after another consonant than s; thus, vāgvín, dhṛṣadvín. The doubtful word vyaçnuvín (VS., once: TB. vyáçniya) appears to add the ending (or in, with euphonic v) to a present tense-stem.

1238. वस् vant. Very numerous possessive adjectives are made by this suffix, from noun-stems of every form, both in the earlier language and in the later.

The accent generally remains upon the primitive, without thange; but an accent resting on a stem-final, if this be anyhing but d or d, is in the majority of cases thrown forward upon the suffix.

A final vowel — oftenest a, very rarely u — is in many words lengthened 1 the older language (247) before this ending, as in composition. Nouns 1 an retain the n.

**a.** Examples of the normal formation are: with unchanged accent, *isavant, 'hsiry', putrávant, 'having a son', prajánanavant, 'procreative', andárīkavant, 'rich in lotuses', híranyavant, 'rich in gold', apūpávant, aving cakes'; prajávant, 'having progeny', árnāvant, 'wooly', dáksināvant, ich in sacrificial gifts'; sákhivant, 'having friends', saptarsívant, 'accompanied ' the seven sages'; cácīvant, 'powerful', távisīvant, 'vehement', pátnīvant, ith spouse', dhīvant, 'devoted', dyávāpṛthivīvant (94), 'with heaven and rth'; viṣnuvant, 'accompanied by Vishnu'; āviftvant, 'hither turned', āciīvant, ixed with milk', svàrvant, 'splendid', carádvant, 'full of years', páyasvant, ch', támasvant, 'dark', bráhmanvant, 'accompanied with worship', rómaņvant, uiry'; but also lómavant and vṛtrahavant (PB.); — with accent on the suffix, navánt, 'having fre', rayivánt, 'having a mouth', cīrsanvánt, 'having t', navánt, 'with nose', āsanvánt, 'having a mouth', cīrsanvánt, 'headed'.* 

b. With final stem-vowel lengthened: for example, áçvāvant (beside avant), 'possessing horses', sutávant, 'having soma expressed', vŕsnyāvant, virile force' (about thirty such cases occur in V.); çáktīvant, 'mighty', dhitīvant, 'having axes', ghŕņīvant, 'hot'; vişūvánt, 'dividing' (víşu, 'apart').
c. A few special irregularities are: indrasvant, with s added to the nitive; krçanávant, with anomalous accent (if from krçana, 'pearl'); and, n particles, antárvant, 'pregnant', and visūvánt (just quoted).

d. By the same suffix are made from pronominal roots and stems adives in which is shown another specialized meaning, that of 'like to, mbling'. They were given above (517: to be added are *ivant* and *kivant*).

1283]

And derivatives from nouns in the older language are perhaps occasionally to be understood in the same way: e. g. *indrasvant*, 'like Indra'.

It has also been pointed out (1107) that the adverb of comparison in of is doubtless to be understood as accusative neuter of a derivative of this class.

e. In vivásvant or vívasvant, 'shining' (also proper name), is seen a side-formation to vivásvan (1169), having the aspect of a primary derivative.

f. For the derivatives in vat from prepositions, which appear to have nothing to do with this suffix, see below, 1245 f.

None of the suffixes beginning with v show in the Veda resolution of v to u.

1284. वन् van. The secondary derivatives in this suffix belong to the older language, and are a small number, of which extremely few have more than an occurrence or two.

They have the aspect of being produced under the joint influence of primary van and secondary vant. A final short vowel is usually lengthened before the suffix. The accent is various, but oftenest on the penult of the stem. The feminine (like that of the derivatives in primary van: 1169, end) is in vari.

The Vedic examples are: from a-stems, rpäván or rpaván, rtávan (and f. -varī), fghāvan, dhitávan, satyávan, summāvárī, and maghávan; from ā-stems, sūmftāvarī, svadhávan (and f. -varī); from i-stems, amatīván, arātīván, crustīván, musīván, and kņēvan (only in the further derivative kársīvana; from consonant-stems, átharvan, samádvan, sáhovan (bad AV. variant to RV. sahávan). Somewhat anomalous are sahávan and sahasāvan, índhanvan (for índhanavan?), and sanívan (for sánitivan?). The only words of more than sporadic occurrence are rtávan, maghávan, átharvan.

1235. मत् mant. This is a twin-suffix to  $\overline{an}$  cant (above, 1233); their derivatives have the same value, and are to some extent exchangeable with one another. But possessives i  $\overline{an}$  mant are much less frequent (in the older language, about a third as many), and are only very rarely made from *a*-stems.

If the accent of the primitive word is on the final, it is in the great majority of instances (three quarters) thrown forward upon the added suffix; otherwise, it maintains its place unchanged. A final vowel before the suffix is in only a few cases made long. Examples are:

a. With the accent of the primitive unchanged: kánvamant, and yávamant, 'rich in barley' (these alone from a-stems, and the former only occurring once), ávimant, 'possessing sheep', açánimant, 'bearing the thunder-bolt', ósadhimant, 'rich in herbs', váçimant, 'carrying an axe', vásumant,

'possessing good things', mådhumant, 'rich in sweets', tvåstymant, 'accompanied by Tvashtar', hötymant, 'provided with priests', äyusmant, 'long-lived', jyötismant, 'full of brightness'; — ulkusimant, 'accompanied with meteors', pīlûmant(?), prasümant, 'having young shoots', gómant, 'rich in kine', kakúdmant, 'humped', vidyúnmant (with irregular assimilation of t: VS. has also kakúnmant), 'gleaming', virúkmant, 'shining', havísmant, 'with libations'.

b. With the accent thrown forward upon the ending: agnimant, 'having fire', isudhimant, 'with a quiver', pacumant, 'possessing cattle', vāyumant, 'with wind', pitemant (AV. pitemant), 'accompanied by the Fathers', mātemant, 'having a mother'; no long final vowels are found before the suffix in this division, and only once a consonant, in dasmat (RV., once).

c. Protraction of a final vowel is seen in tvi simant, dhrájimant, hirimant; in jyótisimant is irregularly inserted an  $\bar{i}$  (after the analogy of távisimant).

1236. It has been seen above (especially in connection with the suffixes a and ya) that the neuter of a derivative adjective is frequently used as an abstract noun. There are, however, two suffixes which have in the later language the specific office of making abstract nouns from adjectives and nouns; and these are found also, more sparingly used, in the oldest language, each having there one or two other evidently related suffixes beside it.

For derivatives of the same value made with the suffix *iman*, see above, 1168.2.

1237.  $\overline{\Pi}$  tā. With this suffix are made feminine abstract nouns, denoting 'the quality of being so and so', from both adjectives and nouns.

The form of the primitive is unchanged, and the accent is uniformly on the syllable preceding the suffix.

1238.  $\overline{\operatorname{chin}}$  tati,  $\overline{\operatorname{chin}}$  tati. These suffixes are Vedic only, and the latter is limited to RV. Their relationship to the preceding is evident, but opinions are at variance as to its nature. The accent is as in the derivatives with  $t\overline{a}$ .

The quotable examples in tāti are: arishtātāti, 'uninjuredness', ayakşmátāti, 'freedom from disease', grbhītātāti, 'the being seized', jyeşthātāti, 'supremacy', devátāti, 'divinity', vasútāti, 'wealth', şámtāti, 'good-fortane', sarvátāti, 'completeness'; and, with exceptional accent, ástatāti, 'home', and dákşatāti, 'cleverness'. Two words in tāti are used adjectively (inorganically, by apposition?): cárhtāti (RV., twice; and AV. xix. 44. 1, in MSS.), and satyatāti (RV., once: voc.).

The words in  $t\bar{a}t$  (apparently made by abbreviation from  $t\bar{a}ti$ ) occur only in a case or two: they were all mentioned above (383 d. 2).

1239.  $\overline{a}$  tva. With this suffix are made neuter nouns, of the same value as the feminines in  $\overline{a}$  (above, 1237).

The neuter abstracts in *tva* are in the older language considerably more common than the feminines in  $t\bar{a}$ , although themselves also not very numerous. The accent is without exception on the suffix.

Examples (from the older language) are: amrtatvå, 'immortality', devatvå, 'divinity', subhagatvå, 'good-fortune', ahamuttaratvå, 'struggle for precedency', *çucitvå*, 'purity', *patitvå*, 'husbandship', *taranitvå*, 'energy',  $d\bar{x}rgh\bar{a}yutvå$ , 'long life', *çatrutvå*, 'enmity', *bhrätrtvå*, 'brotherhood', *vrsatvå*, 'virility', sätmatvå, 'soulfulness', maghavattvå, 'liberality', *raksastvå*, 'sorcery'. In anāgästvå and aprajästvå, there is a lengthening of the final syllable of the primitive; and in säuprajästvå (AV., once) this appears to be accompanied by initial vrddhi (säubhagatvå is doubtless from säubhaga, not subhága). In vasatīvaritvå (TS.) there is shortening of final feminine  $\tilde{z}$  before the suffix.

In isitatvátā (RV., once), 'incitedness', and purusatvátā (RV., twice), 'human quality', appears to be a combination of the two equivalent suffixes tva and  $t\bar{a}$ .

The v of tva is to be read in Veda as u only once (raksastuá).

1240.  $\overline{\alpha}\overline{\gamma}$  tvana. The derivatives made with this suffix are, like those in tra, neuter abstracts. They occur only in RV., and, except in a single instance (martiatvaná), have beside them equivalent derivatives in tva. The accent is on the final, and the tra is never resolved into tua.

The words are: kavitvaná, janitvaná, patitvaná, martiatvaná, mahitvaná, vasutvaná, vysatvaná, sakhitvaná.

1241. A few suffixes make no change in the character as part of speech of the primitive to which they are added, but either are merely formal appendages. leaving the value of the word what it was before, or make a change of degree, or introduce some other modification of meaning.

1242. The suffixes of comparison and ordinal suffixes have for the most part been treated already, and need only a reference here.

a. At tara and AH tama are the usual secondary suffixes of adjective comparison: respecting their use as such, see above,

471-8; respecting the use of *tama* as ordinal etc. suffix, see 487; respecting that of their accusatives as adverbial suffixes to prepositions etc., see 1111 c.

In vytratára (RV., once: perhaps an error) the accent is anomalous; in mydayáttama, it is drawn forward to the final of the participle, as often in composition (1309); carvattamá (RV.) has the ordinal accent; sanwatsara-tamá (CB.) is an ordinal; dívātara (RV., once: an error?) is an ordinary adjective, 'of the day'; in açvatará, 'mule', and dhenustari, 'cow losing her milk', the application of the suffix is peculiar and obscure; in rathamtara, name of a certain sāman, it is the same.

b.  $\xi$  ra and H ma, like tara and tama, have a comparative and superlative value; and the latter of them forms ordinals: see above, 474, 487.

c. I tha. like tama and ma, forms ordinals from a few numerals: see 487.

d.  $\overline{RU}$  titha forms words of an ordinal character from bahu (bahutitha, 'many-eth') and  $t\overline{a}vant$  (with loss of a t in the combination:  $t\overline{a}vatitha$ , 'so-many-eth'); and, it is said. from other words meaning 'a number or collection' (gana,  $p\overline{u}ga$ , samgha).

1243. Of diminutive suffixes there are none in Sanskrit with clearly developed meaning and use. The occasional employment of ka, in a somewhat indistinct way, to make diminutives, has been noticed above (1222).

1244. Of the ordinary adjective-making suffixes, given above, some occasionally make adjectives from adjectives, with slight or imperceptible modification of value. The only one used to any considerable extent in this way is ka: as to which, see 1222.

1245. A few suffixes are used to make derivatives from certain limited and special classes of words, as numerals and particles. Thus:

**a.** All taya makes a few adjectives, meaning 'of so many divisions or kinds' (used in the neuter as collectives), from numerals: thus, dvitaya, tritaya, cátustaya (AV.), saptátaya (CB.), astātaya (AB.), dácataya (RV.).

b.  $\overline{cu}$  tya makes a few adjectives from particles: thus, nitya, 'own', nistya, 'strange', amátya, 'companion', ápatya (as neut. noun). 'descendants',  $\overline{av}$ stya, 'evident', sánutya, 'distant', tatratya (late), 'belonging there'; and, according to the grammarians, thatya and kvàtya.

The y of tya is in RV. always to be read as i after a heavy syllable.

c. A ta forms dvitá and tritá, also muhūrtá, 'moment', and apparently avatá, 'well for water)'.

d. With  $\neg$  na are made purāņá, 'ancient', vişuņa, 'various', and perhaps samāná, 'like'.

e. With n tana or n tana are made adjectives from adverbs, especially of time: thus, pratná, 'ancient', nátana or nátna, 'present', sanātána or sanátna, 'lasting', prātastána, 'early', divātana (late), 'of the day', çvastana (late), 'of the morrow'; PB. has also trattana, 'belonging to thee'. In the late language the suffix is used sometimes with an adjective of time: thus, ciratna.

f. an vat makes from particles of direction the feminine nouns mentioned above (383 d. 1).

g. 元 kața, properly a noun in composition, is reckoned by the grammarians as a suffix in utkața, nikața, prakața, vikața (RV., once, voc.), and samkața (all said to be accented on the final).

h. Occasional derivatives made with the ordinary suffixes of primary and secondary derivation from numerals and particles have been noted above: thus, see ana (1150.2d),  $\dot{c}$  (1157.4), ant (1172), u (1178h),  $\bar{a}yya$  (1218), ka (1222a), mna (1224), maya (1225), vant (1233 c).

# CHAPTER XVIII.

# FORMATION OF COMPOUND STEMS.

1246. The frequent combination of declinable stems with one another to form compounds which then are treated as if simple, in respect to accent, inflection, and construction, is a conspicuous feature of the language, from its earliest period.

There is, however, a marked difference between the earlier and the later language as regards the length and intricacy of the combinations allowed. In Veda and Brāhmana, it is quite rare that more than two stems are compounded together — except that to some much used and familiar compound, as to an integral word, a further element is sometimes added. But the later the period, and, especially, the more elaborate the style, the more a cumbrous and difficult aggregate of elements, abnegat1247]

ing the advantages of an inflective language, takes the place of the due syntactical union of formed words into sentences.

1247. Sanskrit compounds fall into three principal classes:

I. Copulative or aggregative compounds, of which the members are syntactically coördinate: a joining together into one of words which in an uncompounded condition would be connected by the conjunction 'and'.

Examples are: indrāváruņāu, 'Indra and Varuna', satyūnytė, 'truth and falsehood', krtākrtám, 'done and undone', devagandharvamānusoragaraksasās, 'gods and Gandharvas and men and serpents and demons'.

The members of such a compound may obviously be of any number, two or more than two. No compound of any other class can contain more than two members — of which, however, either or both may be compound, or decompound (below, 1248).

II. Determinative compounds, of which the former member is syntactically dependent on the latter, as its determining or qualifying adjunct: being either, 1. a noun limiting it in a case-relation. or. 2. an adjective or adverb describing it. And. according as it is the one or the other, may be distinguished the two sub-classes:  $\mathbf{A}$ . Dependent compounds: and **B**. Descriptive compounds: their difference is not an absolute one.

Examples are: of dependent compounds, amitrasená, 'army of enemies', pādodaka, water for the feet, ayurda, 'life-giving', kástakrta, 'made with the hands' of descriptive compounds, mahargi, great sage, proyasakha, 'dear triend, amitra, 'enemy, súkrta, well doze.

These two classes are of primary value they have undergone no unifying modification in the process of composition: their character as parts of specci is determined by their final member, and they are capable of being resolved into equivalent phrases by giving the proper independent form and formal means of connection to each member. That is not the case with the remaining class which accordingly is more fundamentally distinct from them that they are from one abother.

III becomeany acceptive compounds, the value of

which is not given by a simple resolution into their component parts, but which, though having as final member a noun, are themselves adjectives. These, again, are of two sub-classes: A. Possessive compounds, which are nouncompounds of the preceding class, with the idea of possessing' added, turning them from nouns into adjectives; B. Compounds in which the second member is a noun syntactically dependent on the first: namely, 1. Prepositional compounds, of a governing preposition and following noun; 2. Participial compounds only Vedic, of a present participle and its following object.

The sub-class **B**, is comparatively quite small, and its second division participial compounds is hardly met with even in the later Vedic.

Examples are: rirasena. possessing a hero-army. prajākāma. 'having desire of progeny. tigmácrāga. 'sharphorned'. Aáritasraj. 'wearing green garlands': atimātrá, 'excessive': yārayáddresas. 'driving away enemies'.

The adjective compounds are, like simple adjectives, liable to be used, especially in the neuter, as abstract and collective nouns, and in the accusative as adverbs; and out of these uses have grown apparent special classes of compounds, reckoned and named as such by the Hindu grammarians. The relation in detail of the classification given above to that presented in the native grammar, and widely adopted from the latter by the European grammars, will be made clear as we go on to treat the classes in detail.

1248. A compound may, like a single word, become a member in another compound, and this in yet another — and so on, without definite limit. The analysis of any compound, of whatever length unless it be a copulative, must be made by a succession of bisections.

Thus, the dependent compound  $p\bar{u}rvajanmakrta$ , 'done in a previous existence', is first divisible into krta and the descriptive  $p\bar{u}rvajanman$ , then this into its elements; the dependent sakalanītic $\bar{u}$ stratattvaj $\bar{n}a$ , 'knowing the essence of all books of behavior', has first the root-stem  $j\bar{n}a$  (for  $\gamma j\bar{n}\bar{a}$ , 'knowing', separated from the rest, which is again dependent; then this is divided into tattva, 'essence', and the remainder, which is descriptive; this, again, divides into sakala, 'all', and nītic $\bar{u}$ stra, 'books of behavior', of which the latter is a dependent compound and the former a possessive (sa and kalā, 'having its parts together'.

1249. The final of a stem is combined with the initial of another stem in composition according to the general rules for external combination: they have been given, with their exceptions, in chap. III., above.

**a.** If a stem has a distinction of strong and weak forms, it regularly enters into composition as prior member in its weak form; or, if it has a triple distinction (**311**), in its middle form.

That is, especially, stems in r or ar, at or ant, ac or  $a\tilde{n}c$ , etc., show in composition the forms in r, at, ac, etc.; while those in an and in usually lose their final n, and are combined as if a and i were their proper finals.

b. Occasionally, a stem is used as prior member of a compound, which does not appear, or not in that form, as an independent word: examples are mah $\bar{a}$ , 'great' (apparently used independently in V. in accusative), twoi, 'mighty' (V.), dvi, 'two'.

c. Not infrequently, the final member of a compound assumes a special form : see below, 1315.

1250. But a case-form in the prior member of a compound is by no means rare, from the earliest period of the language. Thus:

a. Quite often, an accusative, especially before a root-stem, or a derivative in a of equivalent meaning: for example, patamgá, 'going by flight', dhanamjayá, 'winning wealth', abhayamkará, 'causing absence of danger', pusiimbhará, 'bringing prosperity', vācamīākhayá, 'inciting the voice'; but also sometimes before words of other form, as hrdamsáni, 'heart-winning', áçvamisți, 'horse-desiring', çubhamyávan, 'going in splendor', subhāgamkáraņa, 'making happy'.

b. Much more rarely, an instrumental: for example, girāvŗdh, 'increasing by praise', vācāstena, 'stealing by incantation', krātvāmagha, 'gladly bestowing', bhūsāketu, 'bright with light', vidmanāpas, 'active with wisdom'.

c. Not seldom, a locative; and this also especially with a root-stem or a-derivative: for example,  $agreg \dot{a}$ , 'going at the head', diviks it, 'dwelling in the sky', vanesáh, 'prevailing in the wood',  $a\bar{n}gesth\dot{a}$ , 'existing in the limbs', prosthecayá, 'lying on a couch', sutékara, 'active with the soma', divícara, 'moving in the sky';  $\bar{a}r c_c a tru$ , 'having enemies far removed', sumnáūpi, 'near in favor', máderaghu, 'hasting in excitement';  $apsuj \dot{a}$ , 'born in the waters', hrisvás, 'hurling at hearts'.

d. Least often, a genitive: thus,  $r\bar{a}y\hat{a}sk\bar{a}ma$ , 'desirous of wealth'. But the older language has a few examples of the putting together of a genitive with its governing noun, both members of the combination keeping their own accent: see below, 1267 d.

e. Excepting occasionally, where case-forms are used, there is no designation of plural meaning by plural form; but a feminine word, where clearness requires it, sometimes keeps its distinctive feminine form.

1251. The accent of compounds is very various, and liable to considerable irregularity even within the limits of the same formation; and it must be left to be pointed out in detail below. All possible varieties are found to occur. Thus:

a. Each member of the compound retains its own separate accent. This is the most anomalous and infrequent method. It appears in certain Vedic copulative compounds chiefly composed of the names of divinities (so-called devatā-dvandvas: 1255 ff.), and in a small number of aggregations partly containing a genitive case-form as prior member (1267 d).

b. The accent of the compound is that of its prior member. This is especially the case in the great class of possessive compounds; but also in determinatives having the participle in ta or na as final member, in those beginning with the negative a or an, and in other less numerous and important classes.

c. The accent of the compound is that of the final member. This is not on so large a scale the case as the preceding; but it is nevertheless quite common, being found in many compounds having a verbal noun or adjective as final member, in compounds beginning with the numerals dvi and tri or the prefixes su and dus, and elsewhere in not infrequent exceptions.

d. The compound takes an accent of its own, independent of that of either of its constituents, on its final syllable (not always, of course, to be distinguished from the preceding case). This method is largely followed: especially, by the regular copulatives, and by the great mass of dependent and descriptive noun-compounds, by those having a root-stem as final, by most possessives beginning with the negative prefix; and by others.

e. The compound has an accent which is altered from that of one of its members. This is everywhere an exceptional and sporadically occurring case, and the instances of it, noted below under each formation, do not require to be assembled here. Examples are: medhásāti (médha), tilámicra (ttila), khádihasta (khādi), yūvayáddveşas (yūváyant); çakadhúma (dhūmá), amíta (mītá), suvíra (vīrá), tuvigríva (grīvá). A few words — as víçva, púrva, and sometimes sárva — take usually a changed accent as prior members of compounds.

### I. Copulative Compounds.

1252. Two or more nouns — much less often adjectives, and, in an instance or two, adverbs — having a coördinate construction, as if connected by 'and', are sometimes combined into compounds.

This is the class to which the Hindu grammarians give the name of *dvandva*, 'pair, couple'; a *dvandva* of adjectives, however, is not recognized by them.

1253. The noun-copulatives fall, as regards their inflective form, into two classes: 1255]

a. The compound has the gender and declension of its final member, and is in number a dual or a plural, according to its logical value, as denoting two or more than two individual things.

Examples are: prāņāpānāú, 'inspiration and expiration', vrīhiyavāú, 'rice and barley', rksāmé, 'verse and chant', kapotokūkāú, 'dove and owl', candrādityāu, 'moon and sun', hastyaçvāu, 'the elephant and horse'; ajāváyas, 'goats and sheep', devāsurás, 'the gods and demons', atharvāngirásas, 'the Atharvans and Angirases', sambādhatandryds, 'anxieties and fatigues', hastyaçvās, 'elephants and horses'; of more than two members (no examples quotable from the older language), çayāsanabhogās, 'lying, sitting, and eating', brāhmaņakṣatriyavitçūdrās, 'a Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaiçya, and Çūdra', rogaçokaparītāpabandhanavyasanāni, 'disease, pain, grief, captivity, and misfortune'.

b. The compound, without regard to the number denoted, or to the gender of its constituents, becomes a neuter singular collective.

Examples are: *istāpūrtám*, 'what is offered and bestowed', *ahorātrám*, 'a day and night', *krtākrtám*, 'the done and undone', *bhūtabhavyám*, 'past and future', *keçaçmaçrú*, 'hair and beard', *ahinakulam*, 'snake and ichneumon', yūkāmakṣikamatkuṇam, 'lice, flies, and bugs'.

1254. a. A stem in r as prior member sometimes takes its nominative form, in  $\bar{a}$ : thus, *pitāputrāu*, 'father and son', *hotāpotārāu*, 'the invoker and purifier (priests)'.

b. A consonant-stem as final member sometimes adds an a to make a neuter collective: thus, chattropānaham, 'an umbrella and a shoe'.

c. The grammarians give rules as to the order of the elements composing a copulative compound: thus, that a more important, a briefer, a vowelinitial member should stand first; and that one ending in a should be placed last. Violations of them all, however, occur.

1255. In the oldest language (RV.), copulative compounds such as appear later are quite rare, the class being chiefly represented by dual combinations of the names of divinities and other personages, and of personified natural objects.

a. In these combinations, each name has regularly and usually the dual form, and its own accent; but, in the very rare instances (only 3 occurrences out of more than 300) in which other cases than the nom.-acc.-voc. are formed, the final member only is inflected.

Examples are: indrūsómā, indrūvisņū, indrūbihaspátī, agnisómūu, turvaçāyadū, dyžvāprthivi, usisūnaktā, sūryāmāsā. The only plural is indrāmarutas (voc.). The cases of other than nominative form are mitrāvāruņābhyām and mitrāvāruņayos, and indrūvāruņayos (each once only).

From dyávāpṛthivi is made the very peculiar genitive diváspṛthivyás (4 times: AV. has dyávāpṛthivibhyām and dyávāpṛthivyós).

b. In one compound, parjányavátā, the first member does not have the dual ending along with the double accent (indranāsatyā, voc., is doubtful as to accent). In several, the double accent is wanting, while yet the double designation of number is present; thus, indrāpāṣṇṣos (beside indrāpāṣáṇā, somāpāṣābhyām (somāpāṣṣṇā occurs only as voc.), vātāparjanyá, sūryācandramásā, and indrāgnī (with indrāgnībhyām and indrāgnyós): somārudrāu is accented only in ÇB. And in one, indravāyú, form and accent are both accordant with the usages of the later language.

c. Of other copulatives, like those made later, the RV. has the plural ajāváyas, the duals rksāmé, satyānrté, sāçanānaçané; also the neuter collective istāpūrtám, and the substantively used neuter of a copulative adjective, nālalohitám. Further, the neuter plurals ahorūtrāņi, 'nycthemera', and ukthārkā', 'praises and songs', of which the final members as independent words are not neuter. No one of these words has more than a single occurrence.

1256. In the later Vedic (AV.), the usage is much more nearly accordant with that of the classical language, save that the class of neuter singular collectives is almost wanting.

**a.** The words with double dual form are only a small minority (a quarter. instead of three quarters, as in RV.); and half of them have only a single accent, on the final: thus, besides those in RV.,  $bhav\bar{a}rudr\bar{a}u$ ,  $bhav\bar{a}carv\bar{a}u$ ; agnāviṣņā, voc., is of anomalous form. The whole number of copulatives is more than double that in RV.

b. The only proper neuter collectives, composed of two nouns, are  $keçacmaçı\hat{u}$ , 'hair and beard',  $\bar{a}\tilde{n}jan\bar{a}bhya\tilde{n}jan\hat{a}m$ , 'salve and ointment', and  $kuçip\bar{u}pabarham\hat{a}m$ , 'mat and covering', unified because of the virtual unity of the two objects specified. Neuter singulars, used in a similar collective way, of adjective compounds, are (besides those in RV.):  $k_T t \bar{u} k_T  

1257. Copulative compounds composed of adjectives which retain their adjective character are made in the same manner, but are in comparison very rare.

Examples are: *cuklakrsna*, 'light and dark', *sthalajāudaka*, 'terrestrial and aquatic', used distributively; and *crttapīna*, 'round and plump', *çāntānukūla*, 'tranquil and propitious', *hrsitasragrajohīna*, 'wearing fresh garlands and free from dust', *misekādi-* *cmaçānānta*, 'beginning with conception and ending with burial', used cumulatively.

In the Veda, the only examples noted are the cumulative  $n\bar{l}lalohit\dot{a}$  and  $ist\bar{a}p\bar{u}rt\dot{a}$  etc., used in the neut. sing. as collectives (as pointed out above), with  $t\bar{u}mradh\bar{u}mr\dot{a}$ , 'dark tawny'; and the distributive  $daksinasavy.\dot{a}$ , 'right and left',  $saptam\bar{a}stam\dot{a}$ , 'seventh and eighth', and  $bhadrap\bar{a}p\dot{a}$ , 'good and bad' (beside the corresponding neut. collective). Such combinations as  $sat-y\bar{u}mrt\dot{e}$ , 'truth and falsehood',  $priy\bar{a}priy\dot{a}ni$ , 'things agreeable and disagreeable', where each component is used substantively, are, of course, not to be separated from the ordinary noun-compounds.

1258. In accentuated texts, the copulative compounds have uniformly the accent (acute) on the final of the stem.

Exceptions are only a case or two in AV., where doubtless the reading is false: thus, vātāparjanyà (once: beside -nyáyos), devamanusyàs (once), brahmarājanyàbhyām (once: part of the MSS.).

1259. An example or two are met with of a diverbial copulatives: thus, *ahardivi*, 'day by day',  $s\bar{u}yampr\bar{u}tar$ , 'at evening and in the morning'. They have the accent of their prior member.

1260. Repeated words. In all ages of the language, nouns and adjectives and particles are not infrequently repeated, to give an intensive, or a distributive, or a repetitional meaning.

Though these are not properly copulative compounds, there is no better connection in which to notice them than here. They are, as the older language shows, a sort of compound, of which the prior member has its own independent accent, and the other is without accent. Thus: jahy  $\partial s \bar{a} \bar{m}$  $v \dot{a} r a \bar{m}$ -varam, 'slay of them each best man'; divé-dive or dyávi-dyavi, 'from day to day';  $pr \dot{a}$ -pra yajñápalim tira, 'make the master of the sacrifice live on and on'; bhúyo-bhūyah  $cv \dot{a}h$ , 'further and further, tomorrow and again tomorrow';  $\ell kay \bar{a}i$ , 'with in each case one'.

Such combinations are called by the native grammarians  $\bar{a}mredita$ , 'repeated'.

1261. Finally may be noticed in passing the compound numerals,  $\ell k\bar{a}$ daça. '11',  $dv \dot{a}v \dot{m} cati$ , '22',  $tr \dot{c} cata$ , '103',  $c \dot{a} tw \dot{s} s has ram,$  '1004', and so on (476 ff.), as a special and primitive class of copulatives. They are accented on the prior member.

# II. Determinative Compounds.

1262. A noun or adjective is often combined into a compound with a preceding determining or qualifying word — a noun, or adjective, or adverb. Such a compound is conveniently called determinative.

XVIII. COMPOSITION.

1263. This is the class of compounds which is of most general and frequent occurrence in all branches of Indo-European language. Its two principal divisions have been already pointed out: thus,  $\mathbf{A}$ . Dependent compounds, in which the prior member is a substantive word (noun or pronoun or substantively used adjective), standing to the other member in the relation of a case dependent on it; and **B**. Descriptive compounds, in which the prior member is an adjective, or other word having the value of an adjective, qualifying a noun; or else an adverb or its equivalent, qualifying an adjective. Each of these divisions then falls into two sub-divisions, according as the final member, and therefore the whole compound, is a noun or an adjective.

The whole class of determinatives is called by the Hindu grammarians *tatpuruşa* (the term is a specimen of the class, meaning 'his man'); and the second division, the descriptives, has the special name of *karmadhāraya* (of obscure application: the literal sense is something like 'office-bearing'). After their example, the two divisions are in European usage generally known by these two names respectively.

### A. Dependent Compounds.

1264. Dependent Noun-compounds. In this division, the case-relation of the prior member to the other may be of any kind; but, in accordance with the usual relations of one noun to another, it is oftenest genitive, and least often accusative.

Examples are: of genitive relation, devasenå, 'army of gods', yamadūtá, 'Yama's messenger', jīvaloká, 'the world of the living', indradhanús, 'Indra's bow', brahmagaví, 'the Brahman's cow', vişagir!, 'poison-mount', mitralābha, 'acquisition of friends', mūrkhaçatāni, 'hundreds of fools', vīrasenasuta, 'Vīrasena's son', rājendra, 'chief of kings', asmatputrās, 'our sons', tadvacas, 'his words'; — of dative, pādodaka, 'water for the feet', māsanicaya, 'accumulation for a month'; — of instrumental, ātmasādrçya, 'likeness with self', dhānyārtha, 'wealth acquired by grain', dharmapatnī, 'lawful spouse', pitrbandhú, 'paternal relation'; — of ablative, apsaraḥsambhava, 'descent from a nymph', madviyoga, 'separation

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from me', cāurabhaya, 'fear of a thief': — of locative, jalakrādā, 'sport in the water', grāmavāsa, 'abode in the village'; — of accusative, nagaragamana, 'going to the city'.

1265. Dependent Adjective-compounds. In this division, only a very small proportion of the compounds have an ordinary adjective as final member; but usually a participle or a derivative of agency with the value of a participle. The prior member stands in any case-relation which is possible in the independent construction of such words.

Examples are: of locative relation, sthalipakva, 'cooked in a pot'. açvakovida, 'knowing in horses', vayahsama, 'alike in age', yudhisthira, 'steadfast in battle', tanaçubhra, 'beautiful in body'; - of instrumental, matrsadrça, 'like his mother'; - of dative, gohita, 'good for cattle'; - of ablative, bhavadanya, 'other than you', tarangacancalatara, 'more mobile than the waves'; --- of genitive, bharatacrestha, 'best of the Bharatas', dvijottama, 'foremost of Brahmans': --- with participial words, in accusative relation, vedavid, 'Veda-knowing', annādá, 'food-eating', tanūpāna, 'body-protecting', satyavādin, 'truth-speaking', pattragata, 'committed to paper' (lit'ly 'gone to a leaf'); — in instrumental, madhupú, 'cleansing with honey', svayámkrta, 'self-made', indragupta, 'protected by Indra', vidyāhīna, 'deserted by (= destitute of) knowledge'; - in locative, hrdayāvidh, 'piercing in the heart', rtvij, 'sacrificing in due season', divicara, 'moving in the sky'; — in ablative, rājyabhrasta, 'fallen from the kingdom', vrkabhīta, 'afraid of a wolf'; — in dative, caranāgata, 'come for refuge'.

1266. We take up now some of the principal groups of compounds falling under these two heads, in order to notice their specialities of formation and use, their relative frequency, their accentuation, and so on.

1267. Compounds having as final member ordinary nouns (such, namely, as do not distinctly exhibit the character of verbal nouns, of action or agency) are quite common. They are regularly and usually accented on the final syllable, without reference to the accent of either constituent. Examples were given above (1264).

a. A principal exception with regard to accent is páti, 'master, lord', compounds with which usually retain the accent of the prior member: thus, prajápati, vásupati, átithipati, gópati (compare the verbal nouns in ti, below, 1274). But in a few words páti retains its own accent: thus, viepáti, pacupáti, etc.; and the more general rule is followed in apsarāpati and vrājapati (in AV.).

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b. Other exceptions are sporadic only: for example, janarájan, devavárman, hiranyatéjas, prtanāháva, çakadháma (but dhūmá); vācástena.

c. The appearance of a case-form in such compounds is rare: examples are vācāstena, uccāthçravas, uccātrghosa, dūrébhās (the three last in possessive application).

d. A number of compounds are accented on both members: thus, çácīpáti, sádaspáti, břhaspáti, vánaspáti, ráthaspáti, jáspáti (also jáspati), nárāçáňsa, tánūnápāt (tanú as independent word), çúnahçépa.

1268. The compounds having an ordinary adjective as final member are (as already noticed) comparatively few.

So far as can be gathered from the scanty examples occurring in the older language, they retain the accent of the prior member: thus, gávisthira (AV. gavísthira), máderaghu, yajñádhīra, sắmavipra, tilámiçra (but tíla); but krstapacyá, 'ripening in cultivated soil'.

1269. The adjective dependent compounds having as final member the bare root — or, if it end in a short vowel, generally with an added t — are very numerous in all periods of the language, as has been already repeatedly noticed (thus, 383 ff., 1147). They are accented on the root.

a. In a very few instances, the accent of words having apparently this origin is otherwise laid: thus, *ánsatra*, *ánarviç*, *svávrj*.

b. Before a final root-stem appears not very seldom a case-form: for example, patamgá, girävýdh, dhiyājúr, akşņayādrúh, hydispýc, divispýc, vanesáh, divisád, angesthá, hytsvás, pytsutúr, apsujá.

c. The root-stem has sometimes a middle or passive value: for example, manoyúj, 'yoked (yoking themselves) by the will', hrdayāwidh, 'pierced to the heart'.

1270. Compounds made with verbal derivatives in a, both of action and of agency, are numerous, and take the accent usually on their final syllable (as in the case of compounds with verbal prefixes: 1148.5).

Examples are: hastagrābhā, 'hand-grasping', devavandā, 'god-praising', haviradā, 'devouring the offering', bhuvanacyavā, 'shaking the world', vrūtyabruvā, 'calling one's self a vrūtya'; akṣaparājayā, 'failure at play', vaṣaṭkārā, 'utterance of vashat', gopoṣā, 'prosperity in cattle', aāgajvarā, 'pain in the limbs'.

a. In a few instances, the accent is (as in compounds with ordinary adjectives: above, **1268**) that of the prior member: thus, marūdvydha, sutékara (and other more questionable words). And dúgha, 'milking, yielding'. is so accented as final: thus, madhudúgha, kāmadúgha.

b. Case-forms are especially frequent in the prior members of compounds with adjective derivatives in a, showing guna-strengthening of the root: thus, for example, abhayamkará, yudhingamá, dhanamjayá, puramdará, viceambhará, diväkará, talpeçayá, divistambhá.

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1271. Compounds with verbal nouns and adjectives in *ana* are very numerous, and have the accent always on the radical syllable (as in the case of compounds with verbal prefixes: 1150.1 c).

Examples are: keçavárdhana, 'hair-increasing', ūyuppratáraņa, 'lifelengthening', tanūpána, 'body-protecting', devahédana, 'hatred of the gods', pumesívana, 'giving birth to males'.

a. A very few apparent exceptions as regards accent are really cases where the derivative has lost its verbal character: thus, yamasūdaná, 'Yama's realm', *āchādvidhāna*, 'means of protection'.

b. An accusative-form is sometimes found before a derivative in ana: thus, sarūpankáraņa, ayaksmankáraņa, subhūgankáraņa, vanankáraņa.

1272. a. The action-nouns in ya (1213) are not infrequent in composition as final member, and retain their own proper accent (as in combination with prefixes).

Sufficient examples were given above (1213).

b. The same is true of the equivalent feminines in  $y\dot{a}$ : see above, 1213d.

c. The gerundives in ya (1213) hardly occur in the older language in combination with other elements than prefixes. The two *nivibhāryà* and *prathamavāsyà* (the latter a descriptive) have the accent of the independent words of the same form; *balavijñāyå* and *áçvabudhya* (?) are inconsistent with these and with one another.

1273. Compounds made with the passive participle in ta or na have the accent of their prior member (as do the combinations of the same words with prefixes: 1085 s).

Examples are: hástakyta, 'made with the hand', vīrájāta, 'born of a hero', ghósabuddha, 'awakened by noise', prajápatisysta, 'created by Prajapati'; and, of participles combined with prefixes, indraprasūta, 'incited by Indra', býhaspátipraņutta, 'driven away by Brihaspati', ulkábhihata, 'struck by a thunderbolt'.

a. AV. has the anomalous apsusametica.

b. A number of exceptions occur, in which the final syllable of the compound has the accent: for example, agnitaptá, indrotá, pitrvittá, rathakrītá, kavipraçastá.

c. One or two special usages may be noticed. The participle gata, 'gone to', as final of a compound, is used in a loose way in the later language to express relation of various kinds: thus, jagatīgata, 'existing in the world', tvadgata, 'belonging to thee', sakhīgata, 'relating to a friend', etc. The participle bhūta, 'been, become', is used in composition with a noun as hardly more than a grammatical device to give it an adjective form: thus, idam tamobhūtam, 'this creation, being darkness (existing in the condition of darkness,'; tām ratnabhūtām lokasya, 'her, being the pearl of the world'; and so on. The other participles do not occur as finals of compounds except in rare and sporadic cases: thus, gautamabruvana, 'calling himself Gautama'.

1274. Compounds with derivatives in ti have (like combinations with the prefixes: 1157.1d) the accent of the prior member.

Examples are: dhánasāti, 'winning of wealth', sómapīti, 'soma-drinking', deváhūti, 'invocation of the gods', námaūkti, 'utterance of homage', havyádūti, 'presentation of offerings'.

In nemådhiti, medhåsāti, vanådhiti (all RV.), the accent of the prior member is changed from penult to final.

Where the verbal character of the derivative is lost, the general rule of final accent (1267) is followed: thus, *devaheti*, 'weapon of the gods', *devasumati*, 'favor of the gods'.

In sarvajyāni, 'loss of everything', the accent is that of compounds with ordinary nouns.

1275. Compounds with a derivative in in as final member have (as in all other cases) the accent on the in.

Thus, ukthaçansın, 'psalm-singing', vratacārin, 'vow-performing', isabhadāyin, 'bullock-giving', satyavādin, 'truth-speaking', cronspratodin, 'thighpounding'.

1276. There is a group of compounds with derivatives in *i*, having the accent on the penult or radical syllable.

Thus, pathiráksi, 'road-protecting', havirmáthi, 'sacrifice-disturbing', ātmadúsi, 'soul-harming', pathisádi, 'sitting in the path', sahobhári, 'strengthbearing', vasuváni, 'winning good things', dhanasáni, 'gaining wealth'; and, from reduplicated root, urucákrí, 'making room'.

Compounds with -sáni and -váni are especially frequent in Veda and Brāhmaņa. As independent words, nouns, these are accented sani and vani. Combinations with prefixes do not occur in sufficient numbers to establish a distinct rule, but they appear to be oftenest accented on the suffix (1155, 2d).

From  $\gamma$  han are made in composition -ghni and -ghnī, with accent on the ending: thus, sahasraghnī, ahighnī, çvaghnī; -dhi from  $\gamma$  dhā (1155.2e) has the accent in its numerous compounds: thus, işudhī, garbhadhī, puchadhī: óşadhi and pūramdhi are probably of other derivation.

1277. Compounds with derivatives in van have (like combinations with prefixes: 1169.1b) the accent of the final member — namely, on the radical syllable.

Thus, somapávan, 'soma-drinking', baladávan, 'strength-giving', pāpakŕtvan, 'evil-doing', bahusúvan, 'much-yielding', talpaçívan, 'lying on s couch', drusádvan, 'sitting on a tree', agrétvari, f., 'going at the head'.

a. The accent of the (somewhat obscure) words matariçuan and mataribhvan is anomalous.

b. The few compounds with final man appear to follow the same rule

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as those with van: thus, svāduksádman, 'sbaring out sweets', āçuhéman, 'steed-impelling'.

1278. Compounds with other derivatives, of rare or sporadic occurrence, may be briefly noticed: thus, in u, rūstradipsú, devapiyú, govindú, vanargú (?): compare 1176 d; — in mu or tnu, lokakytnú, surūpakytnú: compare 1196; in tr, nrpūtr, mandhūtr, haskartr (vasudhátaras, AV., is doubtless a false reading). The derivatives in as are of infrequent occurrence in composition (as in combination with prefixes: above, 1151.4), and appear to be treated as ordinary nouns: thus, yajfiavacás (but hiranyatéjas, AV.).

### B. Descriptive Compounds.

1279. In this division of the class of determinatives, the prior member stands to the other in no distinct caserelation, but qualifies it adjectively or adverbially, according as it (the final member) is noun or adjective.

Examples are: nīlotpala, 'blue lotus', sarvaguņa, 'all good quality', priyasakha, 'dear friend', maharit, 'great sage', rajatapātrá, 'silver cup'; ájňāta, 'unknown', súkrta, 'well done', duskŕt, 'ill-doing', purustuti, 'much praised', púnarņava, 'renewed'.

a. The prior member is not always an adjective before a noun, and an adverb before an adjective; other parts of speech are sometimes used adjectively and adverbially in that position.

b. The boundary between descriptive and dependent compounds is not an absolute one; in certain cases it is open to question, for instance, whether a prior noun, or adjective with noun-value, is used more in a case-relation, or adverbially.

c. Moreover, where the final member is a derivative having both noun and adjective value, it is not seldom doubtful whether an adjective compound is to be regarded as descriptive, made with final adjective, or possessive, made with final noun. Sometimes the accent of the word determines its character in this respect, but not always.

A satisfactorily simple and perspicuous classification of the descriptive compounds is not practicable; we cannot hold apart throughout the compounds of noun and of adjective value, but may better group both together, as they appear with prefixed elements of various kinds.

1280. The simplest case is that in which a noun as final member is preceded by a qualifying adjective as prior member.

In this combination, both noun and adjective may be of any kind. The accent is (as in the corresponding class of dependent noun-compounds: 1267) on the final syllable.

Thus, ajñātayaksmá, 'unknown disease', mahādhaná, 'great

wealth', kronaçakuni, 'black bird', daksināgni, 'southern fire', uruksiti, 'wide abode', adharahanú, 'lower jaw', itarajaná, 'other folks', sarvātmán, 'whole soul', ekavīrá, 'sole hero', saptarsi, 'seven sages', ekonavinçati, 'a score diminished by one', jāgratsvapná, 'waking sleep', yāvayatsakhá, 'defending friend'.

a. There are some exceptions as regards accent. Especially, compounds with viewa (in composition, accented viewa), which itself retains the accent: thus, viewadewas, 'all the gods', viewamanusa, 'every man'. For words in ti, see below, 1287 d. Sporadic cases are madhyandina, viewakapi, both of which show an irregular shift of tone in the prior member; and a few others.

b. Instead of an adjective, the prior member is in a few cases a noun used appositionally, or with a quasi-adjective value. Thus, rājayakṣmá, 'king-disease', brahmarṣi, 'priest-sage', rājarṣi, 'king-sage', rājadanta, 'king-tooth', devajana, 'god-folk', duhitrjana, 'daughter-person', çamīlatā, 'creeper named çamī', jayaçabda, 'the word "conquer"', ujjhitaçabda, 'the word "deserted'''.

This group is of consequence, inasmuch as in possessive application it is greatly extended, and forms a numerous class of appositional compounds: see below, 1302.

c. This whole subdivision, of nouns with preceding qualifying adjectives, is not uncommon; but it is greatly (in AV., for example, more than five times) exceeded in frequency by the sub-class of possessives of the same form: see below, 1298.

1281. The adverbial words which are most freely and commonly used as prior members of compounds, qualifying the final member, are the verbal prefixes and the words of direction related with them, and the inseparable prefixes, *a* or *an*, *su*, *dus*, etc. (1121). These are combined not only with adjectives, but also, in quasi-adjectival value, with nouns; and the two classes of combinations will best be treated together.

1282. Verbal adjectives and nouns with preceding adverbs. As the largest and most important class under this head might properly enough be regarded the derivatives with preceding verbal prefixes. These, however, have been here reckoned rather as derivatives from roots combined with prefixes (1141), and have been treated under the head of derivation, in the preceding chapter. In taking up the others, we will begin with the participles.

1283. The participles belonging to the tense-systems those in ant or at, māna, āna, vāns — are only very rarely compounded with any other adverbial element than the negative *a* or *an*, which then takes the accent.

Examples are : anadant, adadat, ana; nant, asravant, alubhyant, adasyant, addiseant, adevayant; amanyamana, ahinisana, achidyamana; adadivans, abibhīvāns; and, with verbal prefixes, anapasphurant, anayamisyant, aviradhayant, avicacalat, apratimanyūyamāna.

a. Exceptions in regard to accent are very few: arundhaff, ajárantī, acodánt (RV., once: doubtless a false reading; the simple participle is codant); AV. has anipádyamāna for RV. ánipadyamāna (and the published text has asaniyánt, with a part of the MSS.).

b. Of other compounds than with the negative prefix have been noted in the Veda *-punardīyamūna* (in *ápunard*-) and *súvidvūnis*. In alalūbhāvant and jañjanūbhāvant (RV.), as in astamyánt and astameyyánt (AV.), we have participles of a compound conjugation (1091), in which, as has been pointed out, the accent is as in combinations with the verbal prefixes.

1284. The passive (or past) participle in ta or na is much more variously compounded, and in general (as in the case of the verbal prefixes: 1085 a) the preceding adverbial element has the accent.

Thus, with the negative a or an (by far the most common case): ákria, ádabdha, árisia, ánādhrsta, áparājita, ásamkhyāta, ánabhyārūdha; — with su, sújāta, súhuta, súsamçita, svoramkrta; — with dus, dúccarita. dúrdhita and dúrhita; — with other adverbial words, dánsujūta, návajāta, sánacruta, svayámkrta, trípratisthita: áramkrta and kakajákrta are rather participles of a compound conjugation.

a. Exceptions in regard to accent are: with a or an, anāçastā, apraçastā, and, with the accent of the participle retracted to the root, amfta, adīșta, actīta, ayūta 'myriad', atūrta (beside átūrta), asūrta (? beside sūrta); — with su (nearly half as numerous as the regular cases), subhūtā, sūktā, supraçastā, svākta, sukrtā and sujūtā (beside sūkrta and sūjūta), and a few others; with dus (quite as numerous as the regular cases), duritā, duruktā, duskrtā, durbhūtā; with sa, sajūtā; with other adverbs, amotā, aristutā, tuvijūtā, prācīnopavītā, and the compounds with puru, purujūtā, puruprajūtā, purupraçastā, purustutā, etc. The proper name asūdhā stands beside ásūdha; and AV. has abhinnā for RV. ābhinna.

1285. The gerundives occur almost only in combination with the negative prefix, and have usually the accent on the final syllable.

Examples are:  $an\bar{a}py\dot{a}$ ,  $anindy\dot{a}$ ,  $asahy\dot{a}$ ,  $ayodhy\dot{a}$ ,  $amoky\dot{a}$ ;  $adviseny\dot{a}$ ;  $ahnava\ddot{a}yy\dot{a}$ ; and, along with verbal prefixes, the cases are asamkhyey $\dot{a}$ ,  $a-pramysy\dot{a}$ ,  $anapavyy\dot{a}$ ,  $anatyudy\dot{a}$ ,  $an\ddot{a}dhysy\dot{a}$ ,  $avimoky\dot{a}$ ,  $an\ddot{a}nukyty\dot{a}$  (the accent of the simple word being samkhyéya etc.).

a. Exceptions in regard to accent are: ánedya, ádābhya, ágohya, ájopya, áyabhya. The two anavadhareyà and anativyädhyà (both AV.) belong to the yà-division (1213 b) of gerundives, and have retained the accent of the simple word. And  $\hat{a}ghnya$  and  $aghny\dot{a}$  occur together.

b. The only compounds of these words with other adverbial elements in V. are suyabhya (accented like its twin *áyabhya*) and prathamavāsya (which retains the final circumflex), and perhaps ekavādyā.

c. The neuter nouns of the same form (1213c: except sadhástutya)retain their own accent after an adverbial prior member: thus, purcapáyya, pūrvapáya, amutrabháya; and sahaçáyya. And the negatived gerundives instanced above are capable of being viewed as possessive compounds with such nouns.

Some of the other verbal derivatives which have rules of their own as to accent etc. may be next noticed.

1286. The root-stem (pure root, or with t added after a short final vowel: 1147) is very often combined with a preceding adverbial word, of various kinds; and in the combination it retains the accent.

Examples are: with inseparable prefixes, adrúh, 'not harming', asú, 'not giving birth', arúc, 'not shining'; sukŕt, 'well-doing', sucrút, 'hearing well'; duskŕt, 'ill-doing', dūdác (199 b), 'impious'; sayúj, 'joining together', samád, 'conflict'; sahajá, 'born together', sahaváh, 'carrying together'; — with other adverbs, amājúr, 'growing old at home', uparispŕc, 'touching upward', punarbhú, 'appearing sgain', prātaryúj, 'harnessed early', sadyaħkrŕ, 'bonght the same day', sākanurŕdh, 'growing up together', sadanhdí, 'ever-binding', visūvŕt, 'turning to both sides', vrthāsáh, 'easily overcoming'; — with adjectives used adverbially, uruvyác, 'wide-spreading', prathamajá, 'first-born'. raghusyád, 'swift-moving', navasú, 'newly giving birth', ekajâ, 'only born', çukrapíc, 'brightly adorned', dvijâ, 'twice born', trivŕt, 'triple', svaráj, 'selfruling'; — with nouns used adverbially, cambhú, 'beneficent', sūryacvít, 'shining like the sun', īçānakŕt, 'acting as lord', svayambhú, 'self-existent'; and, with accusative case-form, patamágá, 'going by flight'.

a. When, however, a root-stem is already in composition, whether with a verbal prefix or an element of other character, the further added negative itself takes the accent (as in case of an ordinary adjective: below, 1288a): thus, for example,  $dn \bar{a}vrt$ , 'not turning back', dvidvis, 'not showing hostility', dduskrt, 'not ill-doing',  $dnacvad\bar{a}$ , 'not giving a horse', dpacuhan, 'not slaying cattle' ( $an \bar{a}g ds$  would be an exception, if it contained  $\sqrt{g\bar{a}}$ : which is very unlikely). Similar combinations with su seem to retain the radical accent: thus, supratúr,  $sv \bar{a}bh dx$ ,  $sv \bar{a}y dy$ : sv dvrj is an unsupported exception.

b. A few other exceptions occur, mostly of doubtful character, as sadhástha, ádhrigu, and the words having añc as final member (407 ff.: if this element is not, after all, a suffix).

1287. Other verbal derivatives, requiring to be treated apart from the general body of adjectives, are few and of minor importance. Thus:

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a. The derivatives in a are in great part of doubtful character, because of the possibility of their being used with substantive value to make a possessive compound. The least ambiguous, probably, are the derivatives from present-stems (1148.3 b), which have the accent on the suffix: thus, asunvá, apacyá, akşudhyá, avidasyá, anāmṛṇá, sadāpṛṇá, punarmanyá; and with them belong such cases as atṛpá, avṛdhå, aramgamá, urukramá, evāvadá, satrāsahá, punaḥsará, puraḥsará; and the nouns sāyambhavá, sahacūrá, prātaḥsāvá, mithoyodhá. Differently accented, on the other hand, although apparently of the same formation, are such as ánapasphura, ánavahvara (compare the compounds noticed at 1286 a), sadǎvṛdha, sūbharva, nyagródha, puroḍáça, sadhamáda, and others. Words like adábha, durháṇa, sukára, are probably possessives.

b. The derivatives in van keep in general the accent of the final member, on the root (compare 1169.1b, 1277): thus,  $\bar{a}_{c}up\acute{a}tvan$ , 'swift-flying', *puroyávan*, 'going in front', sukítvan, 'well-doing'; and sutárman and suváhman are probably to be classed with them. But the negative prefix has the accent even before these: thus,  $\acute{a}yajvan$ ,  $\acute{a}r\ddot{a}van$ ,  $\acute{a}prayutvan$ ; and satyámadvan (if it be not possessive) has the accent of its prior member.

c. A few words in *i* seem to have (as in dependent compounds: 1276) the accent on the radical syllable: thus, durgibhi, rjuváni, tuvisváni.

d. The derivatives in ti are variously treated: the negative prefix has always the accent before them: as *ácitti, ábhūti, ánāhūti;* with su and dus, the compound is accented now on the prefix and now on the final, and in some words on both (súnīti and sunīti, dústuti and dustuti); with other elements, the accent of the prefix prevails: thus, sáhuti, sadhástuti, puróhiti, pūrcápīti, pūrvyástuti.

e. The derivatives in in have, as in general, the accent on the suffix: thus, pūrvāsín, bahucārín, sādhudevin, savāsín, kevalādin. But, with the negative prefix, ánāmin, ávitārin.

f. Other combinations are too various in treatment, or are represented by too few examples in accentuated texts, to justify the setting up of rules respecting them.

1288. Of the remaining combinations, those made with the inseparable prefixes form in some measure a class by themselves.

**a**. The negative prefix *a* or *an*, when it directly negatives the word to which it is added, has a very decided tendency to take the accent.

We have seen above (1283) that it does so even in the case of present and perfect and future participles, although these in combination with a verbal prefix retain their own accent (1085); and also in the case of a root-stem, if this be already compounded with another element (1286 a). And the same is true of its other combinations.

Thus, with various adjective words: ätandra, ädabhra, ädäçuri, änrju, ädevayu, ätrşnaj, ätavyäns, änämin, ädvayävin, äpracetas, änapatyavant, änupadasvant, äpramäyuka, ämamri, äprajajni, ävididhayu, änagnidagdha

úkūmakarçana, ápaçcūddaghvan. Further, with nouns, ápati, ákumāra, ábrūhmaņa, ávldyā, áçraddhū, ávrātya.

But there are a number of exceptions, in which the accent is on the final syllable, without regard to the original accentuation of the final member: thus, for example, acitrá, acrirá, aviprá, ayajňiyá, anāsmāká, asthūrf, anācá, ajarayá, anāmayitná; and in amfira, 'enemy', and avīra, 'unmanly', there is a retraction of the accent from the final syllable of the final member to its penult.

b. The prefixes su and dus have this tendency in a much less degree, and their compounds are very variously accented, now on the prefix, now on the final syllable, now on the accented syllable of the final member.

Thus, for example, súbhadra, súvipra, súprakva, súbrāhmaņa, súbhişaj; sutīrthá, suvasaná, susūrathí, supūçá, sucitrá; sucéva, suhóir: suvíra is like avīra; — durmitrá, duşvápnya; and duchúnū (168), with irregular retraction of accent (çuná).

c. The compounds with sa are too few to furnish occasion for separate mention; and those with the interrogative prefix in its various forms are also extremely rare in the Veda: examples are kucará, katpayá, kábandha, kunannamá, kumārá, kúyava, kusáva.

1289. The verbal prefixes are sometimes used in a general adverbial way, qualifying a following adjective or noun.

a. Examples of such combinations are not numerous in the Veda. Their accentuation is various, though the tone rests oftenest on the preposition. Thus, ádhipati, 'over-lord', áparūpa, 'mis-form', prátiçatru, 'opposing foe', própada, 'fore part of foot', pránapūt, 'great-grandchild', vípakva, 'quite done', sámpriya, 'mutually dear'; upajfhvikā, 'side tongue' (with retraction of the accent of jihvá); antardeçá, 'intermediate direction', pradiv, 'forward heaven', prapitāmahá (also prápitāmaha), 'great-grandfather', pratijaná, 'opponent', vyadhvá, 'midway'. These compounds are more frequent with possessive value (below, 1305).

b. This use of the verbal prefixes is more common later, and some of them have a regular value in such compounds. Thus, ati denotes excess, as in atidūra, 'very far', atibhaya, 'exceeding fear', âtipūruşa (ÇB.), 'chief man'; adhi, superiority, as in adhidanta, 'upper tooth', adhistrī, 'chief woman'; ā signifies 'somewhat', as in ākuțila, 'somewhat crooked', ānīla, 'bluish'; upa denotes something accessory or secondary, as in upapurāņa, 'additional Purāna'; pari, excess, as in paridurbala, 'very weak'; prati, opposition, as in pratipakṣa, 'opposing side', pratipustaka, 'copy'; vi, variation or excess, as in vidūra, 'very far', vipūndu, 'greyish', vikṣudra, 'respectively small'; sam, completeness, as in sampakva, 'quite ripe'.

1290. Other compounds with adverbial prior members are quite irregularly accented.

Thus, the compounds with puru, on the final (compare the participles

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with puru, 1284 a); as, purudasmá, purupriyá, puruçcandrá; those with púnar, on the prior member, as púnarņava, púnarvasu; those with satās, satīná, satyá, the same, as satómahant, satīnámanyu, satyámugra; a few combinations of nouns in tr and ana with adverbs akin with the prefixes, on the final syllable, as puraëtr, purahsthātr, upariçayaná, prātahsavaná; and miscellaneous cases are mithóävadyapa, háriçcandra, álpaçayu, sādhvaryá, and yāchresthá and yūvachresthá.

1291. The adjective *pūrva* is in the later language frequently used as final member of a compound in which its logical value is that of an adverb qualifying the other member (which is said to retain its own accent). Thus, *drstapūrva*, 'previously seen', *pariņītapūrva*, 'already married', *somapītapūrva*, 'having formerly drunk soma', *strīpūrva*, 'formerly a woman'.

## III. Secondary Adjective Compounds.

1292. A compound having a noun as its final member very often wins secondarily the value of an adjective, being inflected in the three genders to agree with the noun which it qualifies, and used in all the constructions of an adjective.

This class of compounds, as was pointed out above (1247.III.), falls into the two divisions of **A**. Possessives, having their adjective character given them by addition of the idea of 'possessing'; and **B**. those in which the final member is syntactically dependent on or governed by the prior member.

### A. Possessive Compounds.

1293. The possessives are noun-compounds of the preceding class, determinatives, of all its various subdivisions, to which is given an adjective inflection, and which take on an adjective meaning of a kind which is most conveniently and accurately defined by adding 'having' or 'possessing' to the meaning of the determinative.

Thus: the dependent sūryatejás, 'sun's brightness', becomes the possessive sūryatejas, 'possessing the brightness of the sun'; yajňakāmá, 'desire of sacrifice', becomes yajňákāma, 'having desire of sacrifice'; the descriptive brhadratha, 'great chariot', becomes the possessive brhådratha, 'having great chariots', dhasta, 'not hand', becomes ahastá, 'handless', durgandhi, 'ill savor', becomes durgándhi, 'of ill savor'; and so on.

a. Compounds of the copulative class do not appear to assume a possessive value — unless (as has been suggested with some plausibility) we are to regard those of singular collective form as neuters of secondary adjectives.

b. The name given by the native grammarians to the possessive compounds is *bahuvrīhi*: the word is an example of the class, meaning 'possessing much rice'.

c. The name "relative", instead of possessive, sometimes applied to this class, is evidently not to be approved; since, though the meaning of such a compound (as of any attributive word) is easily cast into a relative form, its essential character lies in the possessive verb which has nevertheless to be added, or in the possessive case of the relative which must be used: thus, brhádratha, 'who has a great chariot', or 'whose is a great chariot'.

1294. That a noun, simple or compound, should be added to another noun, in an appositive way, with a value virtually attributive, and that such nouns should occasionally gain by frequent association and application an adjective form also, is natural enough, and common in many languages; the peculiarity of the Sanskrit formation lies in two things. First, that such use should have become a perfectly regular and indefinitely extensible one in the case of compounded words, so that any compound with noun-final may be turned without alteration into an adjective, while to a simple noun must be added an adjective-making suffix in order to adapt it to adjective use : for example, that while hasta must become hustin and bahu must become bahumant, hiranyahasta and mahabahu change from noun to adjective value with no added ending. And second, that the relation of the qualified noun to the compound should have come to be so generally that of possession, not of likeness, nor of appurtenance, nor of any other relation which is as naturally involved in such a construction: that we may only say, for example, mahābāhuh purusah, 'man with great arms', and not also mahābāhur manih, 'jewel for a great arm', or mahābāhavah çākhāh, 'branches like great arms'.

There is, however, in the older language a little group of derivative adjectives involving the relation of appurtenance rather than of possession: thus, viçvánara, 'of or for all men, belonging to all'; and so viçvákṛṣți, viçvácarṣaṇi; also viçváçūrada, 'of every antumn', vipathâ, 'for bad roads', dvirājâ, '[battle] of two kings'. And some of the so-called dvigu-compounds, as dvigu itself in the adjective sense 'worth two cows', dvināu, 'bought for two ships' (1312), may be compared with them (compare also the words in ana, 1296, end). It is at least open to question whether these are not survivals of an application independent of the possessive, and originally of an equal rank with it, rather than instances of a possessive modified to its opposite.

1295. The possessive compound is distinguished from its substrate, the determinative, generally by a difference of accent.

#### Possessive Compounds.

This difference is not of the same nature in all the divisions of the class; but oftenest, the possessive has as a compound the natural accent of its prior member (as in most of the examples given above).

1296. Possessively used dependent compounds, or possessive dependents, are very much less common than those corresponding to the other division of determinatives.

Further examples are: mayáraroman, 'having the plumes of peacocks', agnítejas, 'having the brightness of fire', jñātímukha, 'wearing the aspect of relatives', pátikāma, 'desiring a husband', hastipāda, 'having an elephant's feet'.

The accent is, as in the examples given, regularly that of the prior member, and exceptions are few and of doubtful character. A few compounds with derivatives in ana have the accent of the final member: thus, indrapána, 'serving as drink for Indra', devasádana, 'serving as seat for the gods', rayisthána, 'being source of wealth'; but they contain no implication of possession, and are perhaps in character, as in accent (1271), dependent. Also a few in as, as nrcáksas, 'men-beholding', nrváhas, 'men-bearing', ksetrasádhas, 'field-prospering', are probably to be judged in the same way.

1297. Possessively used descriptive compounds, or possessive descriptives, are extremely numerous and of every variety of character; and some kinds of combination which are rare in proper descriptive use are very common as possessives.

They will be taken up below in order, according to the character of the prior member — whether the noun-final be preceded by a qualifying adjective, or noun, or adverb.

1298. Possessive compounds in which a noun is preceded by a qualifying ordinary adjective are (as pointed out above, 1280 c) very much more common than descriptives of the same form.

a. They regularly and usually have the accent of their prior member: thus, anyárūpa, 'of other form', ugrábāhu, 'having powerful arms', jīváputra, 'having living sons', dīrgháçmaçru, 'longbearded', brháchravas, 'of great renown', bhárimūla, 'many-rooted', mahávadha, 'bearing a great weapon', viçvárūpa, 'having all forms', çukrávarna, 'of bright color', çivábhimarçana, 'of propitious touch', satyásamdha, 'of true promises', sárvānga, 'whole-limbed', sváyaças, 'having own glory', háritasraj, 'wearing yellow garlands'.

b. Exceptions, however, in regard to accent are not rare (a seventh or eighth of the whole number, perhaps). Thus, the accent is sometimes that

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of the final member; especially with derivatives in as, as tuvirådhas, purupéças, prthupákşas, and others in which (as above, **1296**, end) a determinative character may be suspected: thus, urujráyas beside urujrí, uruvyácas beside uruvyác, and so on; but also with those of other final, as rjuhásta, citikákşa, krsnakárna, citradícíka, tuvicúsma, rjukrátu, prthupárçu, puruvártman, raghuyáman, vidupátman. In a very few cases, the accent is retracted from the final to the first syllable of the second member: thus, aňhubhéda, tuvigríva, puruvíra, pururúpa, citibáhu (also citibāhú). The largest class is that of compounds which take the accent upon their final syllable (in part, of conrse, not distinguishable from that of those which retain the accent of the final member): for example, bahvanná, nīlanakhá, puruputrá, viçuūngá, svapatí, tuvipratí, prgniparní f., darçatacrí, pūtirajjú, asitajňú, prthugmán, bahuprajás.

c. The adjective víçva, 'all', as prior member of a compound (and also in derivation), changes its accent regularly to viçvá; sárva, 'whole, all', does the same in a few cases.

1299. Possessive compounds with a participle preceding and qualifying the final noun-member are numerous, although such a compound with simple descriptive value is almost unknown.

The accent is, with few exceptions, that of the prior member.

a. The participle is oftenest the passive one, in ta or na. Thus, chinnápaksa, 'with severed wing', dhrtárāstra, 'of firmly held royalty', hatámātr, 'whose mother is slain', iddhāgni, 'whose fire is kindled', uttānáhasta, 'with outstretched hand', práyatadaksina, 'having presented sacrificial gifts'; and, with prefixed negative, áristavīra, 'whose men are unharmed', átaptatanu, 'of unburned substance', ánabhimlātavarņa, 'of untarnished color'.

Exceptions in regard to accent are very few: there have been noticed only paryastākså, vyastakeçi f., achinnaparņā.

b. A few examples occur of a present participle in the same situation. In about half the instances, it gives its own accent to the compound: thus, dyutádyāman, dhrsádvarna etc., çucúdratha, rúçadvatsa etc., bhrájajjanman etc., samyádvīra, stanáyadama, sádhadisti; in the others, the accent is drawn forward to the final syllable of the participle (as in the compounds with governing participle: below, 1309): thus, dravátpāni etc. (dravát also occurs as adverb), rapçádūdhan. svanádratha, arcáddhūma, bhandádisti, krandádisti. With these last agrees in form jarádasti, 'attaining old age, long-lived'; but its make-up, in view of its meaning, is aromalous.

c. The RV. has two compounds with the perfect middle participle as prior member: thus, yuyujānāsapti, 'with harnessed coursers' (perhaps rather 'having harnessed their coursers'), and dadrçānāpavi (with regular accent, instead of dādrçāna, as elsewhere irregularly in this participle), 'with conspicnous wheel-rims'.

d. Of a nearly participial character is the prior element in grútkarna (RV.), 'of listening ear'; and with this are perhaps accordant d'idyagni and stháracman (RV., each once).

1300. Possessive compounds having a numeral as prior member are very common, and for the most part follow the same rule of accent which is followed by compounds with other adjectives: excepted are in general those beginning with *dvi* and *tri*, which accent the final member.

a. Examples with other numerals than dvi and tri are: ékucakra, ékaçīrsan, ékapad, cáturañga, cátuspaksa, páñcāñguri, páñcāudana, sádaçva, sátpad, saptájihva, saptámätr, astápad, astáputra, návapad, návadvāra, dáçaçākha, dáçaçīrsan, dvádaçāra, trinçádara, çatáparvan, çatádant, sahásranāman, sahásramūla.

b. Exceptions in regard to accent are but few, and have the tone on the final syllable, whatever may be that belonging originally to the final member; they are mostly stems in final a, used by substitution for others in an, i, or a consonant: thus, caturaksá etc. (aksán or áksi: 431), sadahá etc. (áhan or áhar: 430a), daçavṛsá etc. (vṛsan), ekarātrá etc. (rấtri or rấtrī), ekarcá etc. (rc); but also a few others, as sadyogá, astāyogá, çatārghá, sahasrārghá, ekapará (?).

c. The compounds with dvi and tri for the most part have the accent of their final member: thus, for example, dvijánman, dvidhára, dvibándhu, dvivartaní, dvipád, tritántu, trinábhi, triçóka, trivárūtha, tricakrá, triçīrsán, tripád. A number of words, however, follow the general analogy, and accent the numeral: thus, for example, dvípaksa, dvíçavas, dvyàsya, trísandhi, tryàra, tryàcir, and sometimes dvípad and trípad in AV. As in the other numeral compounds, a substituted stem in a is apt to take the accent on the final: thus, dvívrsá and trivrsá, dvirājá, dvirātrá, tryāyusá, tridivá; and a few of other character with tri follow the same rule: thus, trikaçá, trināká, tribandhú, tryudhán, tribarhís, etc.

d. The neuter, or also the feminine, of numeral compounds is often used substantively, with a collective or abstract value, and the accent is then regularly on the final syllable: see below, 1312.

1301. Possessive compounds having as prior member a noun which has a quasi-adjective value in qualifying the final member are very frequent, and show certain specialities of usage.

Least peculiar is a noun of material as prior member (hardly to be reckoned as regular possessive dependents, because the relation of material is not expressed by a case): thus, hiranyahasta, 'gold-handed', hiranyaeraj, 'with golden garlands', dyahsthūņa, 'having brazen supports', rajatánābhi, 'of silver navel'.

1302. Especially common is the use of a noun as prior member to qualify the other appositionally, or by way of equivalence (the occasional occurrence of determinatives of this character has been noticed above, 1280 b.. These may conveniently be called appositional possessives. Their accent is that of the prior member, like the ordinary possessive descriptives.

a. Examples are: áçvaparna, 'horse-winged', or 'having horses as wings'

(said of a chariot), bhúmigrha, 'having the earth as house', indrasakhi, 'having Indra for friend', agnihoty, 'having Agni as priest', gandharvåpatni, 'having a Gandharva for sponse', cūráputra, 'having hero-sons', jarámytyu, 'having old age as mode of death, living till old age', agnívāsas, 'fire-clad', tadanta, 'ending with that', cūracakşus, 'using spies for eyes', viṣṇucarmanāman, 'named Vishnuçarman'; and, with pronoun instead of noun, tvắdūta, 'having thee as mossenger', tádapas, 'having this for work'.

Exceptions in regard to accent occur here, as in the more regular descriptive formation: thus, agnijihvá, vršanacvá, dhūmacíkhá, pavīnasá, etc.

b. Not infrequently, a substantively used adjective is the final member in such a compound: thus, *indrajyeştha*, 'having Indra as chief', *mánalyaştha*, 'having the mind as sixth', *somaçreştha*, 'of which soma is best', *ekapará*, 'of which the ace is highest' (?), *ásthibhūyas*, 'having bone as the larger part, chiefly of bone', *abhirūpabhūyiştha*, 'chiefly composed of worthy persons', *daçāvara*, 'having ten as the lowest number', *cintūpara*, 'having meditation as highest object or occupation, devoted to meditation', *niliçvāsaparama*, 'much addicted to sighing'.

c. Certain words are of especial frequency in the compounds here described, and have in part won a peculiar application.

1. Thus, with ādi or ādika or ādya, 'first', are made compounds signifying the person or thing designated along with others, such a person or thing et cetera. For example, devā indrādayah, 'the gods having Indra as first', that is, 'the gods Indra etc.', marīcyādīn munīn, 'Marici and the other sages', svāyambhuvādyāh saptāi 'te manavah, 'those seven Manus, Svayambhuva etc.', agnistomādhikān makhān, 'the sacrifices Agnishtoma and so on'. Or the qualified noun is omitted, as in annapānendhanādīni, 'food, drink, fuel, etc.', dānadharmādikam caratu bhavān, 'let your honor practise liberality, religious rites, and the like'. The particles evam and iti are also sometimes used by substitution as prior members: thus, evamādi vacanam, 'words to this and the like effect'; ato 'ham bravīmi kartavyah samcayo nityam ityādi, 'hence I say "accumulation is ever to be made" etc.'

Used in much the same way, but less often, is prabhrti, 'beginning': thus, viçeāvasuprabhrtibhir gandharvāiḥ, 'with the Gandharvas Viçvavasu etc.'; especially adverbially, in measurements of space and time, as tatprabhrti, 'thenceforward'.

 Words like pũrva, pũrvaka, puralisara, purogama, meaning 'foregoer, predecessor', are employed in a similar manner, and especially adverbially, to denote accompaniment.

3. The nonn mātrā, 'measure', stands as final of a compound which is used adjectively or in the substantive neuter to signify a limit that is not exceeded, and obtains thus the virtual value of 'mere, only': thus, *jalamātreņa vartayan*, 'living by water only' (lit'ly, 'by that which has water for its measure or limit'), garbhacyutimātreņa, 'by merely issuing from the womb', prāņayātrikamātraḥ syāt, 'let him be one possessing what does not exceed the preservation of life'; uktamātre tu vacane, 'but the words being merely uttered'.

4. The noun artha, 'object, purpose', is used at the end of a compound, oftenest in the substantive neuter, to signify 'for the sake of' or the like: thus, yajñasiddhyartham, 'in order to the accomplishment of the sacrifice', damayantyartham, 'for Damayanti's sake'.

5. Other examples are abha, kalpa, in the sense of 'like, approaching'; thus, hemābha, 'gold-like', mytakalpa, 'nearly dead', pratipannakalpa, 'almost accomplished'; - vidha, in the sense of 'kind, sort': thus, tvadvidha, 'of thy sort', purusavidha, 'of human kind'; - praya, in the sense of 'mostly, often', and the like: thus, duhkhapraya, 'full of pain', tynapraya, 'abounding in grass', nirgamanapraya, 'often going out'; - antara (in substantive neuter), in the sense of 'other': thus, decantara, 'another region' (lit'ly, 'that which has a difference of region'), janmantarani, 'other existences', cakhantare, 'in another text'.

1303. In appositional possessive compounds, the second member, if it designates a part of the body, sometimes logically signifies that part to which what is designated by the prior member belongs, that on or in which it is.

Thus, ghrtáprstha, 'butter-backed', mádhujihva, 'honey-tongued', niskágriva and manigriva, 'necklace-necked', patrahasta, 'vessel-handed', vajrabahu, 'lightning-armed', asrnmukha, 'blood-faced', kilalodhan, 'mead-uddered', vajajathara, 'sacrifice-bellied'; with irregular accent, dhumaksi f., 'smokeeyed', acrumukhi f., 'tear-faced'; and khadihasta, 'ring-handed' (khadi). In the later language, such compounds are not infrequent with words meaning 'hand': thus, castrapani, 'having a sword in the hand', lagudahasta, 'carrying a staff'.

1304. Of possessive compounds having an adverbial element as prior member, the most numerous by far are those made with the inseparable prefixes. Their accent is various. Thus :

a. In compounds with the negative prefix a or an (in which the latter logically negatives the imported idea of possession), the accent is prevailingly on the final syllable, without regard to the original accent of the final member. For example : anantá, 'having no end', abalá, 'not possessing strength', arathá, 'without chariot', acraddha, 'faithless', amaní, 'without ornament', acatrú, 'without a foe', avarmán, 'not cuirassed', adánt, 'toothless', apád, 'footless', atejás, 'without brightness', anārambhanā, 'not to be gotten hold of', apratimaná, 'incomparable', aduchuná, 'bringing no harm'.

But a number of examples (few in proportion to those already instanced) have the prefix accented (like the simple descriptives: 1288 a): thus, aksiti, 'indestructible', agu, 'kineless', agopā, 'without shepherd', ajīvana, 'lifeless', anapi, 'without friends', acievi f., 'without young', amrtyu, 'deathless', abrahman, 'without priest', avyacas, 'without extension', ahavis, 'without oblation', and a few others: AV. has aprajas. but CB. aprajás. A very few have the accent on the penult: namely, acesas, ajani, and avira (with retraction, from virá); and AV. has abhrair, but RV. abhrair.

b. In compounds with the prefixes of praise and dispraise, su and dus, Whitney, Grammar. 29

#### XVIII. COMPOSITION.

the accent is in the great majority of cases that of the final member: thus, sukálpa, 'of easy make', subhága, 'well portioned', sunáksatra, 'of propitious star', suputrá, 'having excellent sons', sugopá, 'well-shepherded', sukārtí, 'of good fame', sugándhi, 'fragrant', subāhû, 'well-armed', suyáňtu, 'of easy control', sukrátu, 'of good capacity', suhārd, 'good-hearted', susráj, 'wellgarlanded', suvárman, 'well-cnirassed', suvásas, 'well-clad', supránīti, 'well guiding'; durbhága, 'ill-portioned', durdŕçīka, 'of evil aspect', durdhára, 'hard to restrain', durgándhi, 'ill-savored', durādhī, 'of evil designs', durdhártu, 'hard to restrain', dustárītu, 'hard to excel', duratyétu, 'hard to cross', durdhúr, 'ill-yoked', durāáman, 'ill-named', durvásas, 'ill-clad'.

There are, however, a not inconsiderable number of instances in which the accent of these compounds is upon the final syllable: thus, suciprá, 'welllipped', svapatyá, 'of good progeny', susanikāçā, 'of good aspect', svanīguri, 'well-fingered', svisū, 'having good arrows', supīvās, 'well fatted': and compounds with derivatives in ana, as suvijnānā, 'of easy discernment', sūpasarpaņā, 'of easy approach', duçcyavanā, 'hard to shake'; and AV. has suphalā and subandhū against RV. suphāla and subāndhu. Like avīra, suvīra shows retraction of accent. Only dūrāçir has the tone on the prefix.

On the whole, the distinction by accent of possessive from determinative is less clearly shown in the words made with *su* and *dus* than in any other body of compounds.

c. The associative prefix sa or (less often) sahá is treated like an adjective element, and itself takes the accent in a possessive compound: thus, sákratu, 'of joint will', sánāman, 'of like name', sárūpa, 'of similar form', sáyoni, 'having a common origin', sávūcas, 'of assenting words', sátoka, 'having progeny along, with one's progeny', sábrāhmaņa, 'along with the Brahmans', sâmūla, 'with the root', sántardeça, 'with the intermediate directions'; sahágopa, 'with the shepherd', sahávatsa, 'accompanied by one's young', suhápatnã, 'having her husband with her', sahápūruṣa, 'along with our men'.

In RV. (save in a doubtful case or two), only saha in such compounds gives the meaning of 'having along with one, accompanied by'; and, since saha governs the instrumental, the words beginning with it might be of the prepositional class (below, 1310). But in AV. both sa and saha have this value (as illustrated by examples given above); and in the later language, the combinations with sa are much the more numerons.

There are a few exceptions, in which the accent is that of the final member: thus, sajósa, sajósas, sadíça, sapráthas, sabádhas; and AV. shows the accent on the final syllable in  $s\bar{a}\bar{n}g\hat{a}$  (CB.  $s\dot{a}\bar{n}ga$ ) and the substantivized (1312) savidyutå.

d. Possessive compounds with the exclamatory prefixes ka etc. are too few in the older language to furnish ground for any rule as to accent: kåbandha is perhaps an example of such.

1305. Possessive compounds in which a verbal prefix is used as prior member with adjective value, qualifying a noun as final member, are found even in the oldest language, and

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are rather more common later (compare the descriptive compounds, above, **1289**; and the prepositional, below, **1310**. They usually have the accent of the prefix.

Most common are those made with pra, vi, and sam: thus, for example, prámahas, 'having exceeding might'. prácravas, 'widely famed'; vígrīva, 'of wry 'neck', vyàāga, 'having limbs away or gone, limbless', víjāni, 'wifeless', ríparva and víparus, 'jointless', vyàdhvan, 'of wide ways', vímanas, both 'of wide mind' and 'mindless', vívūcas, 'of discordant speech'; sámpatnī, 'having one's husband along', sámmanas, 'of accordant mind', sámsahasra, 'accompanied by a thousand', sámokas, 'of joint abode'. Examples of others are: ityūrmi, 'surging over', ádhivastra, 'having a garment on', ádhyardha, 'with a half over', údhyakşa, 'overseer', ápodaka, 'without water', abhírūpa, 'of a lapted character', dvatoka, 'that has aborted', ámanas, 'of favorable mind', idojas, 'of exalted power', nímanyu, 'of assuaged fury', nírmūya, 'free from guile', nírhasta, 'handless'.

In a comparatively small number of cases, the accent is otherwise; and generally on the final: thus, avakeçá, upamanyú, viçaphá, viçikhá (AV. víçikha,, vikarná, sammūt⁴, etc.; in an instance or two, that of the final member; thus, samçíçvarī, 'having a common young'.

1306. Possessive compounds with an ordinary adverb as prior member are also found in every period of the language. They usually have the accent which belongs to the adverb as independent word.

Examples are: ántyūti, 'bringing near help', avódeva, 'calling down the gods', itáūti, 'helping on this side', ihácitta, 'with mind directed hither', dakṣiṇatáskaparda, 'wearing the braid on the right side', nánūdharman, 'of various character', purudhápratīka, 'of manifold aspect', viçvátomukha, 'with faces on all sides', sadyáūti, 'of immediate aid', vişurūpa, 'of various form', smádūdhan, 'with udder'.

An instance or two of irregular accent are met with: thus, purorathá, 'whose chariot is foremost'.

1307. It was pointed out in the preceding chapter (1222 c. 2) that the indifferent suffix ka is often added to a pure possessive compound, to help the conversion of the compounded stem into an adjective; especially, where the final of the stem is less usual or manageable in adjective inflection.

Also, the compound possessive stem occasionally takes further a possessive-making suffix, in (1230).

The frequent changes which are undergone by the final of a stem occurring at the end of a compound will be noticed further on (1315).

1308. The possessive compounds are not always used in the later language with the simple value of qualifying adjective; often they have a pregnant sense, and become the equivalents of dependent clauses; or the 'having' which is implied in

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them obtains virtually the value of our 'having' as sign of past time.

Thus, for example, prāptayāuvana, 'possessing attained adolescence', i, e. 'having arrived at adolescence'; anadhigataçāstra, 'with unstudied books', i. e. 'who has neglected study'; krtaprayatna, 'possessing performed effort', i. e. 'on whom effort is expended'; aāgulīyakadarçanāvasāna, 'having' the sight of the ring as termination', i. e. 'destined to end on sight of the ring'; uddhrtavişādaçalyah, 'having an extracted despair-arrow', i. e. 'when I shall have extracted the barb of despair'; crutavistārah kriyatām, 'let him be made with heard detalls', i. e. 'let him be informed of the details'.

#### B. Compounds with Governed Final Member.

1309. Participial Compounds. This group of compounds, in which the prior member is a present participle and the final member its object, is a small one (toward thirty examples), and exclusively Vedic — indeed, almost limited to the oldest Vedic (of the Rig-Veda).

The accent is on the final syllable of the participle, whatever may have been the latter's accent as an independent word.

Examples are: vidádvasu, 'winning good things', ksayádvira, 'governing (ksáyant) heroes', taráddvesas, 'overcoming (tárant) foes', ābharádvasu, 'bringing good things', codayánmati, 'inciting (codáyant) devotion', mandayátsakha, 'rejoicing friends', dhārayátkavi, 'sustaining sages', manhayádrayi, 'bestowing wealth'.

In sādādyoni, 'sitting in the lap' (sādat quite anomalously for sīdat or sadat), and spṛhayādvarṇa, 'emulous of color', the case-relation of the final member is other than accusative. In patayán mandayátsakham (RV.i. 4.7), patayát, with accent changed accordingly, represents patayátsakham, the final member being understood from the following word. Vidádaçva is to be inferred from its derivative vāídadaçvi. Of this formation appear to be jamádagni, pratádvasu (prathád?), and trasúdasyu (for trasáddasyu?). It was noticed above (1299 c) that yuyujānásapti is capable of being understood as a unique compound of like character, with a perfect instead of present participle; sādhadisti, on account of its accent, is probably possessive.

1310. Prepositional Compounds. By this name may be conveniently called those combinations in which the prior member is a particle having true prepositional value, and the final member is a noun governed by it.

Such combinations, though few in number as compared with other classes of compounds, are not rare, either in the earlier language or the later.

Their accent is so various that no rule can be set up respecting it.

#### PREPOSITIONAL COMPOUNDS.

a. Examples are: átyavi, 'passing through the wool', atiratrá, 'overnight', atimatrá, 'exceeding measure'; adhiratha, 'lying on the chariot', adhigavá, 'belonging to the cow'; adhaspadá, 'under the feet', adhoaksá, 'below the axle'; anupatha, 'following the road', anuvrata, 'according to direction' (but perhaps possessive?), anupurvá, 'following the one preceding, one after another', anusatyá, 'in accordance with truth', anukūla, 'down stream', etc.; antaspatha (with anomalously changed accent of antar), 'within the way', antardavá, 'within the flame' (?), antarhastá, 'in the hand'; antigrha, 'near the house'; apavrata, 'out of due course' (possessive?); apiprana, 'accompanying the breath', apivrata, 'concerned with the ceremony', apicarvara, 'bordering on the night', apikarná, 'next the ear'; abhijňú, 'reaching to the knee', abhivira and abhisatvan, 'overcoming heroes'; apathi, 'on the road', adeva, 'going to the gods', ajarasá, 'reaching old age', advadaçá, 'up to twelve'; upakaksá, 'reaching to the arm-pits', upottamá, next to last, penultimate'; upáribudhna, 'above the bottom', upárimartya, 'rising above mortals'; tirojaná, 'beyond people'; nihsalá, 'out of the house'; paripád, ('about the feet') 'snare', parihastá, 'about the hand, bracelet'; paróksa, 'out of sight', parómatra, beyond measure', parogavyūtí, 'beyond the fields', parahsahasrá (parahsahasra, CB.), 'above a thousand'; pratidosa, 'toward evening', pratilomá, 'against the grain', pratikūla, 'up stream', pratyáksa, 'before the eyes'; bahihparidhi, 'outside the enclosure'; vípathi, 'outside the road'; samaksá. 'close to the eyes, in sight'.

b. Compounds of this character are in the later language especially common with adhi: thus, adhyūtma, 'relating to the soul or self', adhiyajňa, 'relating to the sacrifice', etc.

c. A suffixal a is sometimes added to a final consonant, as in  $up\bar{a}nas \hat{a}$ , 'on the wagon',  $\bar{a}vyus\dot{a}$ , 'until daybreak'. In a few instances, the suffix ya is taken (see above, 1212d.5); and in one word the suffix in: thus, paripanthin, 'besetting the path'.

d. The prepositional compounds are especially liable to adverbial use: see below, 1313 a.

#### Adjective Compounds as Nouns and as Adverbs.

1311. Compound adjectives, like simple ones, are freely used substantively as abstracts and collectives, especially in the neuter, less often in the feminine; and they are also much used adverbially, especially in the accusative neuter.

The matter is entitled to special notice only because certain forms of combination have become of special frequency in these uses, and because the Hindu grammarians have made out of them distinct classes of compounds, with separate names. There is nothing in the Veda which by itself would call for particular remark under this head.

1312. The substantively used compounds having a numera as prior member, along with, in part, the adjective compounds

themselves, are treated by the Hindus as a separate class, called *dvigu*.

The name is a sample of the class, and means 'of two cows', said to be used in the sense of 'worth two cows'; as also *pañeagu*, 'bought for five cows', *dvināu*, 'worth two ships', *pañcakapāla*, 'made in five cups', and so on.

Vedic examples of numeral abstracts and collectives are: dvirājā, '[combat] of two kings', triyugā, 'three ages', triyojanā, 'space of three leagues', tridivā, 'the triple heaven', pañcayojanā, 'space of five leagues', sadahā, 'six days' time', dacāngulā, 'ten fingers' breadth'; and, with suffix ya, sahasrāhnyā, 'thousand days' journey'. Others, not numeral, but essentially of the same character, are, for example: anamitrā, 'freedom from enemies', nikilbişā. 'freedom from guilt', savidyutā, 'thunderstorm', vihrdaya, 'heartlessness', and sāhrdaya, 'heartiness', sudivā, 'prosperity by day', sumrgā and sucakunā, 'prosperity with beasts and birds'. Feminines of like use are not quotable from RV. or AV.; later occur such as tricatī, 'three hundred' [481], trilokī, 'the three worlds', pañcamūlī, 'aggregate of five roots'.

As the examples show, the accent of words thus used is various; but it is more prevailingly on the final syllable than in the adjective compounds in their ordinary use.

1313. Those adverbially used accusatives of secondary adjective compounds which have an indeclinable or particle as prior member are reckoned by the Hindu grammarians as a separate class of compounds, and called by the name *avgayabhāva*.

This term is a derivative from the compound verb (1094) made up of avyaya, 'uninflected', and  $\gamma bh\bar{u}$ , and means 'conversion to an indeclinable'.

a. The prepositional compounds (1310) are especially frequent in this use: thus, for example, anusvadhám, 'by one's own will', abhipūrcám, 'in succession', ādvādaçám, 'up to twelve', pratidosám, 'at evening', samaksám, 'in sight'. Instances given by the grammarians are: adhihari, 'upon Hari', uparājam, 'under the king', upanadam or upanadi, 'near the fiver', pratyagni, 'toward the fire', pratiniçam, 'every night', nirmaksikam, 'free from flies'.

b. A large and important class is made up of words having a relative adverb, especially yathā, as prior member. Thus, for example, yathāvaçám, 'as one chooses' (váça, 'will'), yathākrtám, 'as done [before], according to custom', yathānāmá, 'by name', yathābhāgá, 'according to several portion', yathāñgá and yathāpará, 'limb by limb', yatrakámam, 'whither one will', yāvanmātrám, 'in some measure', yāvajjīvá, 'as long as one lives', yāvatsábandhu, 'according to the number of relations'.

These compounds are not common in the old language; RV. has with yathā only four of them, AV. only ten; and no such compound is used adjectively except yāchresthá RV., yāvachresthá AV., 'as good as possible'. QB. has yathākārín, yathācārín, yáthākāma, yáthākratu as adjectives (followed in each case by a correlative táthā). The adjective use in the later language also is quite rare as compared with the adverbial.

Other cases than the accusative occasionally occur: thus, instrumental,

as yathāsamkhyena, yathāçaktyā, yathepsayā, yathāpratiguņāis; and ablative, as yathāuoityāt.

c. Other adverbial compounds of equivalent character occur earlier, and are common later: for example, *rtekarmám*, 'according to sacrificial use', *nānūrathám*, 'on different chariota', 'ubhayadyús, 'two days in succession'; *citrapadakramam*, 'with wonderful progress', *pradūnapūrvam*, 'with accompaniment of a gift'; etc.

#### Anomalous Compounds.

1314. As in every language, compounds are now and then met with which are of anomalous character, as exhibiting combinations of elements not usually put together, or not after such a method, or for such a purpose. Some of these, especially of those occurring in the old language, may well be noticed here.

a. Compounds having a particle as final member: as, apratf, 'having no equal', tuvipratf, 'mightily opposing',  $dtath\bar{a}$ , 'refusing', vitatha, 'false', ya-thātathá, 'as it really is', súsaha, 'prosperity in companionship', etc.

b. Agglomerations of two or more elements out of phrases: thus, ahampūrvá, 'eager to be first', ahamuttará, 'contest for prešminence', mamasatyá, 'contest for possession', itihāsá, 'legend' (iti hā "sa, 'thus, indeed, it was'), naghamārá and naghārisá, 'not, surely, dying or coming to harm', kuvílsa, 'some unknown person', tadídartha, 'having just that as aim', kūcidarthín, 'having errands in every direction', kūcitkará, 'doing all sorts of things', kuhacidvíd, 'wherever found', yadbhavisya, 'What-will-be', etc.

c. Agglomerations in which the prior member retains a syntactic form: as, anyonya and paraspara, 'one another'.

d. Aggregations with the natural order inverted: as, pitūmahá and tatūmahá, 'grandfather'.

e. Aggregations of particles were pointed out above (1111a); also (1122b) cases in which  $n\dot{a}$  and  $m\dot{t}$  are used in composition.

f. In the later language, a preposition is occasionally preceded in composition by a case dependent on it: thus, dantāntah, 'between the teeth', tadbahis, 'outside of it', satyavinā, 'without truth'.

#### Stem-finals altered in Composition.

1315. In all classes of compounds, certain changes of final are liable to appear in the concluding member; generally, they have the effect of transferring the compound to the *a*-declension. Thus:

a. A stem in an often drops its final consonant: examples are aksa, adhva, arva, astha, aha, takşa, brahma, mūrdha, rāja, loma, vṛṣa, çva, saktha, sāma.

b. An i or i is changed to a: examples are añgula, añjala, açra, kukşa, khūra, nada, nūbha, bhūma, rūtra, sakha, hala. c. An a is added after a final consonant, and sometimes after an u-vowel or a diphthong: examples are rea, tvaca; uda, pada, çarada; apa; dhura, pura; ahna, açmana, ūdhna, rājha; anasa, ayasa, āyuşa, urasa, enasa, tamasa, manasa, yajuşa, rajasa, rahasa, varcasa, vedasa, çreyasa, sarasa; bhreva, diva, gava, gāva, nāva.

# Irregular Construction with Compounds.

1316. In the looseness of unlimited and fortuitous combination, in the later language, it is not rare that a word in composition has an independent word in the sentence depending upon it alone, rather than upon the compound of which it forms a part.

A few examples are: cittapramāthinī bālā devānām api (MBh.), 'a girldisturbing the minds even of the gods';*jyotiṣām madhyacār*ī (H.), 'movingin the midst of the stars';*bhagavatā brasaniskāre 'smin*(Ç.), 'in him, whosesacraments have been performed by the blessed one';*syandane dattadīņi*ļā(Ç.), 'with his eye fixed on the charlot'.

Similar evidences of the looseness of composition are: na distapurva 'thava cruta, 'not seen nor heard of before'; darupatrath ca minimayam, 'a wooden and an earthern vessel'.

# APPENDIX.

A. The following text is given (as promised above,
3) in order to illustrate by an example the variety of Sanskrit type in use. It is given twice over, and a transliteration into European letters follows. The text is a fable extracted from the first book of the Hitopadeça.

The Hunter, Deer, Boar, and Jackal.

आसीत्कल्याणकटकवास्तव्यो भैरवो नाम व्याधः । स चै-कदा मांसलुव्धः सन्धनुरादाय विन्ध्याटवीमध्यं गतः । तच तेन मृग एको व्यापादितः । मृगमादाय गछता तेन घोराकृतिः सूकरो दृष्टः । ततस्तेन मृगं भूमौ निधाय सूकरः शरेण हतः । सूकरेणाप्यागत्य प्रलयधनघोरगर्जनं कृत्वा स व्याधो मुष्कदेशे हतश्छिबद्रुम इव पपात । यतः ।

जलमयिं विषं शस्तं खुद्याधी पतनं गिरेः।

निमित्तं किंचिदासाद्य देही प्राणैर्विमुच्यते॥ अचानते दीर्घरावो नाम जखुकः परिक्षमन्नाहारार्थी तान्मृ-तान्मृगव्याधसूकरानपथ्यत् । आलोक्याचिन्तयदसौ । अहो भाग्यम् । महन्नोज्यं समुपस्थितम् । अथवा ।

> त्रचिन्तितानि दुःखानि यथैवायान्ति देहिनाम् । सुखान्यपि तथा मन्ये दैवमचातिरिच्यते ॥

भवतु । एषां मांसैर्मासचयं समधिकं भोजनं में भविष्यति । ततः प्रथमबुभु-चायां तावदिमानि खादूनि मांसानि विहाय कोदण्डाटनीलपं खायुवन्धं खा-दामीखुत्का तथाकरोत् । ततरिक्त्री खायुवन्धे द्रुतमुत्पतितेन धनुषा हृदि भिन्नः स दीर्घरावः पञ्चलं गतः । अतो ऽहं त्रवीमि । कर्तव्यः संचयो नित्यं कर्तव्यो नातिसंचयः ।

त्रतिसंचयदोषेग धनुषा जम्बुको हतः ॥

म्रासीत्कल्याणकरकवास्तव्यो भेरवो नाम व्याधः। स चैकरा मांसलुब्धः सन्धनुरादाय विन्ध्यारुवीमध्यं गतः। तत्र तेन मृग एको व्यापादितः। मृगमादाय गरूता तेन घोराकृतिः सूकरो दृष्टः। ततस्तेन मृगं भूमौ निधाय सूकरः शरेण वृतः। सूकरेणाप्यागत्य प्रलयधनघोर्गर्जनं कृवा स व्याधो मुष्कदेशे व्हतम्कि्तहुम इव प्रयात। यतः।

जलमग्रिं विषं शस्त्रं चुढाधी पतनं गिरेः।

निमित्तं किंचिदासाख देव्ही प्राणीर्विमुच्यते ॥

म्रज्ञान्तरे दीर्घरावो नाम जम्बुकः परिभ्रमत्रार्ह्यारार्धी तान्मृता न्मृगव्याधसूक्ररानपश्यत्। म्रालोक्याचिन्तयदसौ। म्रद्धो भाग्यम् मरुद्रोज्यं समुपस्थितम्। ग्रथवा।

> त्रचिन्तितानि दुःखानि यथैवायान्ति देहिनाम्। मुखान्यपि तथा मन्ये दैवमत्रातिरिच्यते॥

भवतु । एषां मांसैर्मासत्रयं समधिकं भोजनं में भविष्यति । ततः प्रथमबुभुजाणं तावदिमानि स्वाटूनि मांसानि विद्याय कोदगडाटनीलग्नं स्नायुवन्धं खादामीत्युक्त्या तथाकरोत् । ततप्रिकचे स्नायुवन्धे दुतमुत्पतितेन धनुषा हृदि भिन्नः स दीर्घरावः पज्जत्वं गतः । ग्रती उद्दं ब्रवीमि ।

> कर्तव्यः संचयो नित्यं कर्तव्यो नातिसंचयः। श्रतिसंचयदीषेग्र धनुषा जम्बूको हतः॥

āsīt kalyāņakaţakavāstavyo bhāiravo nāma vyādhah. sa cāi 'kadā mānsalubdhah san dhanur ādāya vindhyāţavīmadhyam gatah. tatra tena mrga eko vyāpāditah. mrgam ādāya gachatā tena ghorākrtih sūkaro drsţah. tatas tena mrgam bhīmāu nidhāya sūkarah çareņa hatah. sūkareņā 'py āgatya pralayaghanaghoragarjanam krtvā sa vyādho muşkadeçe hataç chinnadruma iva papāta. yatah:

> jalam agnim vişam çastram kşudvyādhī patanam gireh, nimittam kimcid āsādya dehī prāņāir vimucyate.

#### APPENDIX.

atrāntare dīrgharāvo nāma jambukah paribhramann āhārārthī tān mŗtān mṛgavyādhasūkarān apaçyat. ālokyā 'cintayad asāu: aho bhāgyam. mahad bhojyam samupasthitam. athavā:

> acintitāni duķkhāni yathāi 'vā "yānti dehinām, sukhāny api tathā manye dāivam atrā 'tiricyate.

bhavatu; eşām māistāir māsatrayain samadhikam bhojanam me bhavisyati. tatah prathamabubhukşāyāni tāvad imāni svādūni mānsāni vihāya kodaņdātanīlagnam snāyubandham khādāmī 'ty uktvā tathā 'karot. tataç chinne snāyubandhe drutam utpatitena dhanuşā hrdi bhinnah sa dīrgharāvah pañcatvam gatah. ato 'ham bravīmi:

> kartavyah samcayo nityam kartavyo nā 'tisamcayah; atisamcayadoseņa dhanusā jambuko hatah.

**B.** The following text is given in order to illustrate by a sufficient example the usual method of marking accent, as described above (87, 90). In the MSS., the accent-signs are almost invariably added in red ink. The text is a hymn extracted from the tenth or last book of the Rig-Veda; it is regarded by the tradition as uttered by  $V\bar{a}c$ , 'voice' (i. e. the Word or Logos).

# Hymn (X. 125) from the Rig-Veda.

म्रुरुं हुद्रेभिर्वसुंभिग्चराम्युरुमीदित्यैहुत विग्वदेवैः । म्रुरुं मित्रावर्त्तणोभा बिभर्म्युरुमिन्द्राग्नी म्रुरुमुसिनोभा ॥ १ ॥ म्रुरुं सिमेमारुनर्सं विभर्म्युरुं बष्टारमुत पूषणं भर्मम् । म्रुरुं देधामि द्रविणं रुविष्मति सुप्राव्ये ये यर्त्तमानाय सुन्वते ॥ २ ॥ म्रुरुं राष्ट्री संगर्मनी वर्सूनां चिकितुषी प्रथमा युद्तियीनाम् । तां मी देवा व्यदधुः पुहुत्रा भूरिंस्थात्रां भूर्यविष्ठायत्तीम् ॥ ३ ॥ म्रया सो म्रवेमन्ति यो विप्प्र्यति यः प्राणिति य ई भूणोत्युक्तम् । म्र्यत्तवो मां त उर्य तियत्ति म्रुपि म्रुत म्रहिवं तें वदामि ॥ ८ ॥ म्रुरुसेव स्वयमिटं वदामि जुष्टं देवेभिह्त मानुषिभिः ।

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यं क़ामये तंतमुपं कृषोमि तं ब्रव्साणं तमृषिं तं सुंमेधाम् ॥ ५ ॥ म्रव्हं फुद्राय धनुरा तेनोमि ब्रव्सुदिषे शर्रवे रुत्तवा उ । म्रव्हं जनीय समदं कृषोम्युव्हं चावीपृष्टिवी चा विवेश ॥ ६ ॥ म्रव्हं सुंवे पितर्रमस्य मूर्धन्मम् योनिर्प्स्वर्भुत्तः संमुद्रे । ततो वि तिष्ठि भुवनानु विद्योतामूं चा वर्ष्मणोपं स्पृशामि ॥ ७ ॥ म्रव्हमेव वार्त ख़ प्र वाम्यार्भमाणा भुवनानि विद्या । पूरो दिवा पुर एना पृष्टि्र्व्येतावंती महिना सं बभूव ॥ ८ ॥

ahám rudrébhir vásubhiç carāmy ahám ādityālr utá viçvádevāiļ, ahám mitráváruņo 'bhá bibharmy ahám indrāgni ahám açvino 'bhá. 1. ahám sómam āhanásam bibharmy ahám tvástāram utá pūzóņam bhágam, ahám dadhāmi drdviņam havişmate suprāvyè yájamānāya sunvaté. 2. ahám ráztrī ssingómanī vásūnām cikitúsī prathamā yajīlyānām, tám mā devá vy àdadhuh purutra bháristhātrām bháry āveçáyantīm. 3. máyā só ánnam atti yó vipáçyati yáh práņiti yá īm çrņóty uktám, amantávo mām tá úpa kşiyanti çrudhi çruta çraddhivám te vadāmi. 4. ahám evá svayám idám vadāmi jústam devébhir utá mánusebhih, yám kāmáye tám-tam ugrám kŗņomi tám brahmāņam tám ŕzim tám sumedhám. 5.

ahám rudráya dhánur á tanomi brahmadvíse sárave hántavá u, ahám jánāya samádam krnomy ahám dyávāprthivi á viveça. 6. ahám suve pitáram asya mūrdhán máma yónir apsv àntáh samudré, táto ví tisthe bhúvaná 'nu víçvo 'tá 'múm dyám varzmánó 'pa sprzāmi. 7. ahám evá váta iva prá vāmy ārábhamānā bhúvanāni víçvā, paró divá pará ená prthivyāl 'távatī mahiná sám babhūva. 8.

# SANSKRIT INDEX.

The references in both Indexes are to paragraphs. In this one, many abbreviations are used; but it is believed that they will be found self-explaining. For example, "pron." is pronunciation; "euph." points out anything relating to phonetic form or euphonic combination; "pres.", to present-system; "int." is intensive; "des." is desiderative; and so on. A prefixed hyphen denotes a suffix; one appended, a prefix.

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# ERRATA.

The remark at the end of 721 belongs instead under 688.

,

At 612a, last line of paradigm, restore the lost i of *it*is; and, at 1156, 1. 5, the lost a at end of line.

Read  $\underline{l}$  at 65, last line but one; vává at 94.0; esas and esa at 176, 11. 2, 3, svit at 188, 1. 5; gorájou at 221, 1. 8; brůvůnah at 268, 1. 5; tíryate at 761 b, 1. 15; dyut at 785, 1. 5; ámoci at 844, 1. 8; arūnisus at 908, 1. 8; tanyú at 1178.0, 1. 1; dánçuka at 1180.0, 1. 3; rj (for uj) at 1200 c, 1. 1.

References to the paragraphs 361-76 are (owing to an unfortunately necessary renumbering) in several instances wrong by a difference of one to five. Also other references as follows; read 454 at 425 g, 1. 2; 547 at 561, 1. 5 from end; 672 at 654, 1. 3; 1042 d at 1030, 1. 13; and 1271 at 1150 c, 1. 8.

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